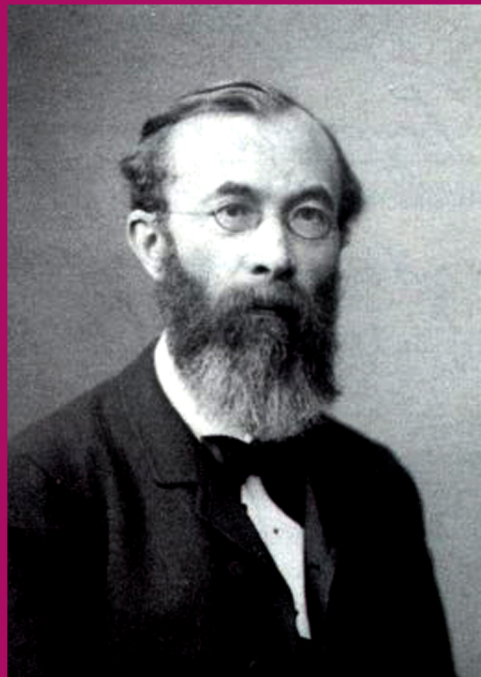


Volume: 1 Issue: 4 July-September:2014



The International Journal of
INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Person of the Issue



Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920)

Editor in Chief:
Dr. Suresh M. Makvana
Co-Editor:
Mr. Ankit P. Patel





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INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Issue 4, No. 1

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I like to thank all participants of Volume 1 and congratulation! for paper publishing.

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IT Engineer, Dept. of Development,
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The present issue of the journal is edited & published by RED'SHINE Publication (A unit of RED'MAGIC Networks. Inc) at 86/Shardhdha, 88/Navamuvada, Lunawada, Gujarat-India, 389230

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Person of the Issue: Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920)

Mr. Ankit P. Patel*, Mr. Ansh Mehta**

	Wilhelm Maximilian Wundt
Born	16 August 1832 Neckarau near Mannheim, Grand Duchy of Baden, German Confederation
Died	31 August 1920 (aged 88) Großbothen, Saxony, Germany ^[1]
Residence	Germany
Nationality	German
Fields	Experimental psychology, Physiology
Institutions	University of Leipzig
Alma mater	University of Heidelberg
Doctoral students	Edward B. Titchener, G. Stanley Hall, Oswald Külpe, Hugo Münsterberg, Vladimir Bekhterev, James McKeen Cattell, Lightner Witmer
Known for	Psychology, Voluntarism
Influences	Gustav Fechner
Influenced	Emil Kraepelin



Wilhelm Wundt was born August 16th 1832 in Germany. He was a psychologist, physician, physiologist, professor, and philosopher. Many historians recognize him as the founding father of psychology, for he was the first to ever to titled as a psychologist. Actually, Wilhelm set psychology apart from philosophy and biology. In 1879, Wundt founded the first laboratory of psychological research at the University of Leipzig, located in Germany. This marked psychology as an individual field of mental studies. His laboratory enabled him to explore the religious beliefs (conceptual aspect) , strange psychological behaviors, the practice of identification of mental disorders and finding damaged parts of the brain. While documenting his research, he learned that psychology was a separate science.

Wilhelm studied under many professors at the variety trio of Universities he attended. Some of these professors inspired him to write textbooks about his studies of Psychology. These works go by the names of Contributions to the Theory of Sense Perception (1858–62), Lectures on the Mind of Humans and Animals in 1863-1864, and Principles of Physiological Psychology. He founded this off of his research as an Inductive Philosopher, Professor of medical investigation, scientific psychology (His master field and what he was known for best.) and of physiology.

*&**, M.A, Clinical Psychology, Dept. of Psychology, Sardar Patel Uni, Vallabh Vidhyanagar, Gujuarat
The Wundt had many inspirations throughout his life time that resulted in his development of the

famous Psychology Lab. These inspirations were none other than his professors. (1856) shortly after his graduation in medicine from Heidelberg he studied with another famous physiologist. Dr. Johannes Peter Müller, one of his first inspirational colleagues, being Wundt's superior he much to offer to Wilhelm while they shared their knowledge of physiology (The branch of biology that deals with the normal functions of living organisms and their parts.). Years after his interaction with Müller, he met the love of his life, Sophie Mau in the University of Heidelberg. While away at his studies he would send her notes that are sacred in history as important historical documents containing some of his studies. The date is unknown for these two important characters but them too strongly empowered Wundt's thoughts and minds for they were a part of the experimental psychology establishment. Their names were Weber (1795–1878) and Fechner (1801–1887), who worked at Leipzig, inspired Wundt's interest in neuropsychology.

In 1879 the opening of the psychology lab was a success, more and more students piled in to learn the adaption to this branch of scientific mental studies. This lab was to emphasize psychology as a completely different branch from all else. Psychology was to be known as the scientific, analytical process of the human mind and its functions.

Timeline

- 1832 born at Neckarau/Mannheim, August 16th
- 1845 enters Bruchsal Gymnasium
- 1851-2 study of medicine at Tübingen
- 1852-5 study of medicine at Heidelberg
- 1853 first publication “on the sodium chloride content of urine”
- 1855 medical assistant at a Heidelberg clinic
- 1856 semester of study with J. Müller and DuBois-Reymond at Berlin; doctorate in medicine at Heidelberg; habilitation as Dozent in physiology; nearly fatal illness
- 1857-64 Privatdozent at the Physiological Institute, Heidelberg
- 1858 Beiträge zur Theorie der Sinneswahrnehmung; Helmholtz becomes director of the Heidelberg Physiological Institute
- 1862 first lectures in psychology
- 1863 Vorlesungen über die Menschen- und Tier-Seele
- 1864 made ausserordentlicher Professor; lectures on physiological psychology (published as [Wundt, 1874])
- 1870-71 Fails to be named Helmholtz's successor at Heidelberg; Army doctor in Franco-Prussian War
- 1873-4 Publishes Grundzüge der physiologischen Psychologie
- 1874 called to Zürich to the professorship in “inductive philosophy”;
- 1875 called to Leipzig as professor
- 1879 founds the Institut für Experimentelle Psychologie, Leipzig; birth of son, Max
- 1881 Philosophische Studien founded
- 1880-83 Logik, 2 vols.

- 1886 Ethik, 3 vols.
- 1889 System der Philosophie, 2 vols.
- 1889-90 Rector of Leipzig University
- 1904 Völkerpsychologie, 2 vols.
- 1915 emeritus status
- 1917 retires from teaching; replaced by his student, Felix Krueger
- 1920 Dies at Grossbothen, near Leipzig, at the age of 88, August 31st

Publications

Wundt was extremely prolific in publications, of which this is a selection only.

- *Die Lehre von der Muskelbewegung* (The Patterns of Muscular Movement), (Vieweg, Braunschweig 1858).
- *Die Geschwindigkeit des Gedankens* (The Velocity of Thought) (Die Gartenlaube 1862, Vol 17, p. 263)
- *Beiträge zur Theorie der Sinneswahrnehmung* (Contributions on the Theory of Sensory Perception), (Winter, Leipzig 1862).
- *Vorlesungen über die Menschen -und Tierseele* (Lectures about Human and Animal Psychology), (Voss, Leipzig 1863/1864).
- *Lehrbuch der Physiologie des Menschen* (Text-book of Human Physiology), (Enke, Erlangen 1865).
- *Die physikalischen Axiome und ihre Beziehung zum Causalprincip* (Physical Axioms and their Bearing upon Causality Principles) (Enke, Erlangen 1866).
- *Handbuch der medicinischen Physik* (Handbook of Medical Physics), (Enke, Erlangen 1867)
- *Grundzüge der physiologischen Psychologie* (Principles of Physiological Psychology), (Engelmann, Leipzig 1874) (has been revised and republished several times^[22])
- *Untersuchungen zur Mechanik der Nerven und Nervenzentren* (Researches upon the Mechanisms of Nerves and Nerve-Centres), 1876
- *Logik. Eine Untersuchung der Principien der Erkenntniss und der Methoden Wissenschaftlicher Forschung* (Logic. An investigation into the principles of knowledge and the methods of scientific research), (Enke, Stuttgart 1880 & 1883), 3 Volumes and vol. 4
- *Essays*, (Engelmann, Leipzig 1885).
- *Ethik* (Ethics), (Enke, Stuttgart 1886)
- *System der Philosophie* (System of Philosophy), (Engelmann, Leipzig 1889).
- *Grundriss der Psychologie* (Outline of Psychology), (Engelmann, Leipzig 1896).
- *Völkerpsychologie* (Social Psychology), 10 Volumes, (Engelmann, Leipzig 1900 to 1920)
 - 1, 2. *Die Sprache* (Language), Pt 1, 2. (1900)
 - 3. *Die Kunst* (Art). (1908)
 - 4, 5, 6. *Mythos und Religion* (Myth and Religion), Pt 1, 2, 3. (1910, 1914,)
 - 7, 8. *Die Gesellschaft* (Society), Pt 1, 2. (1917)
 - 9. *Das Recht* (Right). (1918)
 - 10. *Kultur in der Geschichte* (Culture in History). (1920)

- *Kleine Schriften* (Shorter Writings), 3 Volumes, (Engelmann, Leipzig 1910).
- *Einleitung in die Psychologie* (Introduction to Psychology), (Engelmann, Leipzig 1911).
- *Probleme der Völkerpsychologie* (Problems of Social Psychology), (Wiegandt, Leipzig 1911).
- *Elemente der Völkerpsychologie* (*The Elements of Social Psychology*), (Kröner, Leipzig 1912).
- *Reden und Aufsätze* (Addresses and Extracts), (Kröner, Leipzig 1913).
- *Sinnliche und übersinnliche Welt* (The Sensory and Supersensory World), (Kröner, Leipzig 1914).
- *Über den wahren Krieg* (About the Real War), (Kröner, Leipzig 1914).
- *Die Nationen und ihre Philosophie* (Nations and Their Philosophies), (Kröner, Leipzig 1915).
- *Erlebtes und Erkanntes* (Experience and Realization), (Kröner, Stuttgart 1920).
- *Philosophische Studien* (the first journal of psychology), 1871

Wundt's works in English

- 1974 *The Language of Gestures*. Ed. Blumenthal, A.L. Berlin: De Gruyter
- 1973 *An Introduction to Psychology*. New York: Arno Press
- 1969? *Outlines of Psychology*. 1897. Tr. Judd, C.H. St. Clair Shores, MI: Scholarly Press
- 1916 *Elements of folk-psychology*. Tr. Schaub, E.L. London: Allen
- 1901 *The Principles of Morality and the Departments of the Moral Life*. Trans. Washburn, M.F. London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan
- 1896² *Lectures on human and animal psychology*. Creighton, J.G., Titchener, E.B., trans. London: Allen. Translation of Wundt, 1863
- 1893³ *Principles of physiological psychology*. Titchener, E.B., trans. London: Allen. Translation of Wundt, 1874. [New York, 1904]

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7. Titchner, E.B. 28 November 1970. "Wilhelm Wundt." The American Journal of Psychology 296(7683). <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1413739>
8. Ziche, P (1999). "Neuroscience in its context. Neuroscience and psychology in the work of Wilhelm Wundt.". *Physis; rivista internazionale di storia della scienza* 36 (2): 407–29. PMID 11640242. Smith, R (November 1982). "Wilhelm Wundt resurrected.". *British journal for the history of science* 15 (51 Pt 3): 285–91. doi:10.1017/S0007087400019361. PMID 11611088.

Adjustment among Homosexual in Gujarat

Mukesh B Bhatt*, Dr. S. M. Makvana**

ABSTRACT-

The present Study of adjustment among Homosexual - female sex-worker, social men and women and AIDS patient from Gujarat. Total sample of 360 people was taken according to variables. In which, 180 male and 180 female were taken. In 180 male in 60 homosexual, 60 social men and 60 AIDS male patients and female in 60 female sex workers, 60 social woman and 60 AIDS female patients From Gujarat. The sample was selected randomly. Adjustment Questionnaire Developed by D. J. Bhatt (1994) used for data collection. The collected data were analyzed by F- test statistical technique at 0.01 level of significance and $2 \times 3 \times 2$ factorial design used. Results revealed significant difference between the male and female. There was significant difference in adjustment level found among homosexual-female sex workers, social men – women and AIDS patients.

INTRODUCTION:

The great challenge for 21st century is adjustment. In today's time, we can see lots of changes in our life. E.g. education, liberation movement, lifestyle, modernization, serious problem of adjustment due to accepting liberty. Mental health is the discipline that creates a personality in every individual in society that makes for good adjustment. With the environment that attains a proper synthesis between the intellectual, emotional and physical aspects, that is satisfied and optimistic, that experience a minimum of tension and conflict in its conducts with other individual in society. The aim of mental health is evolution and development of adjusted and balanced personality.

Adjustment is one of the most important psychological activities of human being. If anyone wants satisfaction in life He / She have to adjust with External and Internal environment. Adjustment is precarious and even changing balance between need and desires of -

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the individual on the one hand demand of the environment or society on the other. A process involving both mental and behavioral responses by which an individual strives to cope with inner need. Life is itself a process of adjustment. It is a process through which a person maintains a balance between his need and situations that effect need satisfaction.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

“A problem is a question proposed for a solution.”

The present investigation have been aim to know the effect of mental health, adjustment, and life satisfaction among homosexual- female sex workers, social men-woman and AIDS patients. The title specifically runs thus:

“A study of adjustment among Homosexual - female sex-worker, social men and women and AIDS patient from Gujarat”

AIMS & OBJECTIVES:

Skill in research is to large extent a matter of judicious choice about what to study: deciding which of series of possible ideas in pursue or which aspect of a problem to focus on.

According to research problem, objectives for present study are:

1. To study the effect of genders (sex) on adjustment.
2. To study the effect of type of genders (sex) on adjustment.
3. To study the effect of type of Age on adjustment.
4. To study the internal effect of genders (sex) and type of genders (sex) on adjustment.
5. To study the internal effect of type of genders (sex) and type of Age on adjustment.
6. To study the internal effect of genders (sex) and type of Age on adjustment.
7. To study the internal effect of genders (sex), type of genders (sex) and type of Age on adjustment.

Therefore here research problem is discussed.

EXPLANATION OF MAIN CONCEPT IN THE RESEARCH:-

Following are the main concept of the present research

Adjustment

Lehaner & kube (1961) defined Personal adjustment is a process of interaction between ourselves and our environment in this process. We can either adapt to the environment or alter it satisfactory personal adjustment depends on successful intro reaction.

Adjustment is psychological environment can be seen as the degree of well-being, the level of stress and coping framework, determined by personality and social support variables and life changes, while adjustment to socio-cultural environment is analyzed from a social learning perspective, predicted by variables related to cognitive factors and social skills acquisitions. Using these dimensions offers a simultaneously understanding of the unpredictability and variability of psychological adjustment (Searle and Ward, 1990) and the reliability of the socio-cultural approach to adaptation.

Working Definition of Personnel Involved In the Sample

Homosexual (MSM/GAY)

What is Homosexuality? Homosexuality is romantic or sexual attraction or behavior between members of the same sex or gender. As a sexual orientation, homosexuality refers to “an enduring pattern of or disposition to experience sexual, affection, or romantic attractions” primarily or exclusively to people of the same sex; “it also refers to an individual’s sense of personal and social identity based on those attractions, behaviors expressing them, and membership in a community of others who share them” (Homosexuality, 2012). Homosexuality presents a paradox for evolutionists who explore the adaptedness of human behavior (Kirkpatrick, 2000). International human rights law and the lesbian and gay rights movement have grown up together in the post-war period. Both are still developing. Both are evolving from their western origins to a world-wide presence (Sanders, 2001).

Female Sex Workers (FSWs)

A female sex worker (FSW) is an adult woman, who engages in consensual sex for money or payment in kind, as her principal means of livelihood. In any given geography, sex workers are not a homogeneous group. There are other sex workers whose primary occupational identity may vary, but a large proportion of their occupation group, but not all, often engages in commercial sex regularly and in significant volumes. Bar girls, Tamasha artistes and Mujra dancers come under this category. The categories used here are often overlapping and fluid. For example, a sex worker may be street based for some time and then go into a contract with a lodge

owner to become lodge based. Or a brothel based sex worker may move to another town or city temporarily and work as a street based sex worker.

AIDS

AIDS is a sexually infection disease. It is different from other sexual diseases like syphilis, gonorrhea, herpes and chundroid because other sexual diseases are cutable whereas AIDS is still not curable. Because of sexually infectious diseases, the risk of HIV increases ten times. One cans oneself from sexually infectious diseases only by reducing sexual contacts and by the use of condoms. To be deprived from sexual contacts or in other words to be loyal to one sexual partner is the easiest remedy to save oneself from HIV/AIDS. Maximum victims of sexual infectious diseases are found in the group of persons of 19 to 25 years of age. AIDS is a disease which baldy affects women and children.

In present times, knowledge of AIDS is inevitable for educated youngsters. With reception of this knowledge, youngsters can get self-protection, personal hygiene and healthy life style. AIDS is fatal diseases and hence there is a need to impart AIDS oriented knowledge to the youngsters.

The above research and researcher aims at imparting AIDS oriented knowledge to the youngsters so as to protect oneself from the monster of AIDS. Although researcher's aim is to know the effect of sex and educational level on AIDS awareness.

METHODOLOGY:-

Hypothesis:-

1. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender.
2. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of gender.
3. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of Age.
4. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender & type of gender.
5. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of gender & type of Age.
6. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of Age and type of gender.
7. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender, type of gender & type of Age.

Selection of Sample and Research Design:

The present studies have been aim to the effect of mental health on adjustment and life satisfaction among homosexual- female sex workers, social men-woman and AIDS patients.

Therefore a total sample of 360 people was taken according to variables. In which, 180 male and 180 female were taken. In 180 male in 60 homosexual, 60 social men and 60 AIDS male patients and female in 60 female sex workers, 60 social woman and 60 AIDS female patients. In both area 30 homosexual, 30 female sex workers, 30 social men, 30 social woman and 30 AIDS male patients and 30 AIDS female patients were taken accordingly. The sample was selected randomly from Gujarat's surrounding area.

Sample design is as below: **2x3x2 Factorial Design**

VARIABLE S	Male			Female			Total
	Homosexual	Social men	AIDS male patient	Female sex worker	Social female	AIDS female patient	
15 to 30 years old	30	30	30	30	30	30	180
30 above year's old	30	30	30	30	30	30	180
TOTAL	60	60	60	60	60	60	360

Tools Used In the Present Study:

In present study mental health, adjustment and life satisfaction have been measured among homosexual- female sex workers, social men-woman and AIDS patients. So here three research tools were used which are:

1. Adjustment scale developed by D. J. Bhatt(1994)

Variable:

The present study has been aimed to measure the effect of adjustment among homosexual-Female Sex Workers (FSWs), Social man - women and AIDS patients. Thus, identified variables for the study are as under:

A	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	A. Gender	A1 : Male
			A2 : Female
		B. Type Of Gender	B1 :Homosexual-female sex worker
			B2 : Social Men- Woman
			B3 : AIDS patients
		C. Type of Age	C1 : 15 to 30 years old
			C2 : 30 above year's old
B	DEPENDENT VARIABLES	1. Adjustment	

Data Analysis:

In present study following statistical method were used:

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) will use to test the significant difference between mean scores of adjustment of Homosexual, female sex-worker, social man and woman and AIDS patient belonging to different groups of gender, types of gender and age. The 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance was considered satisfactory for the acceptance or rejection of null hypothesis.

Procedure:

The present researcher has tried to find out the predictive efficiency of some selected background variables to predict adjustment. In this investigation questionnaires were used.

1. Adjustment questionnaires

The researcher of the present study had obtained permission from the NGO's. The researcher personally visited each department of the concerned NGO's and discussed the objectives of the present study, and request them to co-operate in work of data collection. The need sample was representation at random by keeping in mind that each and every men-woman of the respective category should get equal chance to be selected in the sample. After imparting needed instructions to respondents, questionnaire was administered to get the data. 406 responded were selected randomly to administer the questionnaire. The questionnaire that was incompletes was rejected to get the final sample. In all 360 persons were selected as the final sample for the present investigation.

RESULT

Dependent Variable: Adjustment

The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of gender, type of gender and type of Age variable on Adjustment.

Table: 1 ANOVA for Adjustment in context of gender, type of gender and type of Age variable: (N=360)

SOURCE OF VARIANCE	SUM OF SQUARE	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	LEVEL OF SIG
MAIN EFFECTS					
SSA	4987.778	1	4987.778	4.83	0.01
SSB	29020.82	2	14510.41	14.05	0.01
SSC	1472.178	1	1472.178	1.43	N.S
INTERACTION EFFECTS					
SSAXB	4535.872	2	2267.936	2.20	N.S
SSBXC	4632.006	2	2316.003	2.24	N.S
SSCXA	2800.044	1	2800.044	2.71	N.S
SSAXBXC	206.772	2	103.386	0.10	N.S
SSW	359460.9	348	1032.934		
SST	407116.4	359			

MAIN EFFECT:-

The result reveals that gender, type of gender and type age variables are all significant at level of 0.01 or 0.05.

Table - 1 SSA shows F value and mean for gender variable. In which, mean for male 108.7 and for female 101.2 and **F value is 4.83** which is significant at the level of 0.01. Thus, there is a significant difference in adjustment level of among male and female. In which female have lowest mean score than other groups; say that they have more good adjustment level than other group.

Table – 1 SSB shows F value and mean for type of gender variable. In which, mean for homosexual-female sex worker is 115.99, social men-women is 94.00 and AIDS patients is 104.18 and **F value is 14.05** which is significant at the level of 0.01. So, that there is a significant difference in adjustment level among homosexual-female sex workers, social men – women and AIDS patients. In which social men-women have lowest mean than other groups, say that they have more good adjustment level other group.

Then, **table – 1 SSC** shows F value and mean for type of Age variable. In which, mean for 15 to 30 years old people is 106.96 and 30 years old people 102.91 and **F value is 1.43** which is not significant at the level of 0.01. Therefore, there is a no significant difference in adjustment level among 15 to 30 years old people and 30 years old people. In which 30 years old people have lowest means score than other groups, say that they have more good change level other group.

INTERACTIONAL EFFECT:-

Table – 1 SSA x B shows F value and mean for interactional effect of gender and type of gender variable on adjustment. Their **F value is 2.20** which are not significant at the level of 0.01. In which social women have lowest mean than other five groups. It means social women have more good adjustment level than other groups.

Table - 1 SSB x C shows F value and mean for interactional effect of type of gender and type of Age variable on adjustment. **F value** of these group is 2.24 which not significant. That shows there is no significant difference in any of these five groups in adjustment. In which 30 above year's old social men-women have lowest mean than other groups, say that they have more good adjustment level other group.

Table – 1 SSC x A shows F value and mean for interactional effect of type of Age and gender variable on adjustment. **F value** for this group is 2.71 which are not significant at the level of 0.01. In which 15 to 30 years old women have lowest mean than all other groups, say that they have more good adjustment level other group.

Table – 1 SSA x B x C shows F value and mean for interactional effect of gender, type (units) of gender and type of Age variable on adjustment. **F value** of these groups is **0.10** which is not

significant at the level of 0.01. In these groups, 30 above year's old women of social have lowest mean than other eleven groups say that they have more good adjustment level other group.

CONCLUSION

1. There is a significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender.
2. There is a significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of gender.
3. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of Age.
4. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender & type of gender.
5. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of gender & type of Age.
6. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of type of Age and type of gender.
7. There is no significant difference between the mean score on Adjustment of gender, type of gender & type of Age.

LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH

In the course of the research, a lots of shortcomings were realized which can kept in mind while working in this areas in future. Any study done, no matter how sincerely, is bound to have some limitation. The limitations of the present study are as under:

- Geographical and cultural factor are taken in to consideration.
- The sample size was small were taken as sample of the study.
- Due to time constrain qualitative methods could not be applied.
- Due to time boundary interview could not taken.
- Only research oriented people taken as study.
- As a survey research done it was difficult to convince working people for fill up the questionnaire.

SUGGESTION FOR THE FURTHER RESEARCH

- Business people, Widow people and Student will be taken for the research.
- The researcher can includes employee's social status of adjustment.
- The researcher can includes employee's age, urban, rural, culture, and other factor also include and formulate research in various areas.

- Mental and physical handicapped working and not working people can include for the next research.
- With adjustment of working and not working and married and unmarried people's adjustment level can be measured.

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The factors of personality traits among students of arts, commerce and science of students

Mr. Ankit P. Patel*

INTRODUCTION

Today many interesting researches are being conducted in the field of psychology. This Research on home environment, anxiety, mental health, emotional maturity etc finds the place in many leading journals of psychology. Topic of personality traits has drawn attention of many researchers in psychology. Research in personality traits has received a great deal of attention in the last few decades. Comparative study on personality traits of different social groups is worth exploring. Therefore a researcher has selected an interesting topic of comparing the personality traits of Arts, Commerce and Science students. It is also worthwhile to compare the personality traits of males and females. Different inventories of evaluating personality are available. From the available test of personality, the researcher has selected 16 PF of cattle to collect relevant data. Personality is defined as characteristics and distinctive ways of behaving according to C.T. Morgan. The individual behaves in the environment according to his personality traits. The oldest approach to the problem of identifying characteristic and distinctive ways of behaving is to establish a limited number of traits that can be measured with standardised personality tests. 16 PF is one such standard personality inventory.

A scientific way of selecting and measuring a limited number of traits is the technique of factor analysis. Different researchers have identified several factors of personality and constructed standard personality inventories. One such popular personality test is 16 PF of cattle. The trait name represents the 16 personality factor obtained by factor analysis of large number of rating of different groups. In the present research, researcher has used standardised Gujarati version of original 16 PF of cattle.

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REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. “ A comparative study of factors of personality traits among players of individual and team games of universities of Gujarat ” The above research was conducted by Dr. Harish M. Desai, Head of Physical Education, Gujarat University, Ahmadabad, under the guidance of Dr. P.B. Tambar, Director, Department of Physical Education. M. S. University of Baroda. The sample consisted of total 420 players, 210 males and 210 females. Researcher administered 16 PF to those persons. The scoring was done according to manual. The statistical analysis consisted mean, SD and T. Significant difference in personality traits was found in males and females. As well as players of individual events and team events.

B. Personality and culture revisited: Linking traits and dimensions of culture.

The above study was conducted in Tilburg, Netherland, by Greet Hofstede, Robert R Mcnac. It was concerned with trait and preliterate societies. In these research taxonomies of personality traits and cultural values was discussed. The five- factor model of personality is universally valued taxonomy of traits. In analysis of recently reported data, mean personality score of 33 countries were significantly correlated with culture dimension score. Environmental and temperamental explanations were discussed for this.

C. University students personality traits and entrepreneurial intention:

Using entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial attitudes as mediating variable, the study was conducted by Su-Changchen, Professors and Ling-Lingsing, lecturer in National Penghu university of Science & Technology, Taiwan.

This study aims to probe into relationship between personality traits & entrepreneurial attitude. A total of 550 questionnaires were distributed to seven universities in Taiwan. After eliminating the questionnaires with incomplete answers & invalid ones, there were 392 variety samples with a valid return rate of 71.27%. The result indicated that openness to experience; extraversion and conscientiousness influence entrepreneur attitude entrepreneurship & entrepreneurial attitude reveal partial mediating effects between openness to experience, extraversion and conscientiousness in personality traits & entrepreneur intention.

OBJECTIVES:

The present research was carried out with the following objectives.

- I. To find out the difference in personality traits of Arts, Commerce and Science students.
- II. To find out the difference in personality traits between males and females students.

SAMPLE:

150 students from Lunawada Arts, Commerce and Science College were selected randomly. The distribution of sample is shown as under.

Group	Male	Female	Total
Arts (P*)	25	25	50
Commerce (Q**)	25	25	50
Science (R***)	25	25	50
Grand Total			150#

Comparison between these groups will follow the following patterns.

P*XQ, Q**XR***, P*XR*****

VARIABLES:

Variables of this study are shown in following table.

Independent variables: - Students of Arts, Commerce & Science

Dependent variables: - Personality traits

HYPOTHESIS:

For present study, following hypothesis were framed

- 1) There will be no significant difference in factors of personality traits among Arts and Commerce students.
- 2) There will be no significant difference in factors of personality traits among Commerce and Science students.
- 3) There will be no significant difference in factors of personality traits among Arts and Science students.
- 4) There will be no significant difference in factors of personality traits among male and female students.

TOOLS FOR THE DATA COLLECTION:

Standardized Gujarati version of original 16 PF prepared by Dr. J.H Shah and Dr. R.S Patel of educational faculty of Gujarat University, was used as a tool of data collection. The reliability and validity of the said test has been worked out by researcher of the present test.

Discussion:- Present research has been under taken to compare the factors of personality traits among Arts & Commerce students, commerce & science students, Arts & science students. For the purpose of this study 50 arts, 50 commerce and 50 science students were selected as sample. Each group consisted of 25 male students and 25 female students. Out of total sample of 150 students, 75 were males and 75 were females. It was hypothesised that there is no significant difference in the personality traits among arts and commerce, commerce and science, arts & science students, male & female students.

Standardised Gujarati version of 16 PF test prepared by Dr. J. H. Shah and Dr. R. S. Patel was used for collecting data. Two cardboards & stencil scoring keys were used. Key-1 covered factors (Traits) A, C, F, H, L, N, Q1 & Q3. Key-2 covered other factors (traits) B, E, G, I, M, O, Q2 & Q4. The scores were summed up and row scores were converted into “sten” with the help of norms of Form A and form B.

For the statistical analysis of the collected data mean & S.D. were worked out initially and then to find out significant difference between the groups “t” ratio was worked out. The level of significance for ‘s’ ratio was 0.05. The discussion of four tables is as under:

Discussion on table no 1

Difference on personality traits of factors A to Q4 among Arts and Commerce students.

Table no: 1.1 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
A	Arts	4.84	1.73	0.24	1.1686		50
	Commerce	4.44	1.69	0.24		ns	50

Table no: 1.2 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
B	Arts	4.80	2.28	0.32	0.2161		50
	Commerce	4.90	2.53	0.33		Ns	50

Table no: 1.3 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
C	Arts	3.72	1.86	0.26	1.7218	ns	50
	Commerce	4.44	2.30	0.32			50

Table no: 1.4 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
E	Arts	5.24	1.87	0.26	1.8653	ns	50
	Commerce	5.96	1.99	0.28			50

Table no: 1.5 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
F	Arts	5.58	1.77	0.25	1.0103		50
	Commerce	5.26	1.37	0.19		ns	50

Table no: 1.6 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
G	Arts	4.06	1.48	0.21	0.8695		50
	Commerce	4.34	1.73	0.25		ns	50

Table no: 1.7 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
H	Arts	4.06	1.80	0.25	0.9253		50
	Commerce	4.40	1.87	0.26		NS	50

Table no: 1.8 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
I	Arts	4.34	2.07	0.29	0.6300	NS	50
	Commerce	4.60	2.06	0.29			50

Table no: 1.9 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
L	Arts	5.30	1.97	0.28	0.1636		50
	Commerce	5.24	1.68	0.24		NS	50

Table no: 1.10 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
M	Arts	4.82	2.62	0.37	0.0000	NS	50
	Commerce	4.82	2.62	0.37			50

Table no: 1.11 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
N	Arts	3.82	2.16	0.31	0.7828		50
	Commerce	4.14	1.92	0.27		NS	50

Table no: 1.12 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
O	Arts	4.20	1.77	0.25	0.9186		50
	Commerce	4.56	2.13	0.30		NS	50

Table no: 1.13 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q1	Arts	4.56	2.30	0.33	0.7840		50
	Commerce	4.90	2.02	0.29		NS	50

Table no: 14. Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q2	Arts	3.94	1.65	0.23	3.3369	SIG	50
	Commerce	5.14	1.94	0.27			50

Table no: 1.15 Arts X commerce

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q3	Arts	3.20	1.58	0.22	2.8441		50
	Commerce	4.30	2.23	0.32		NS	50

Table no: 1.16 Arts X commerce

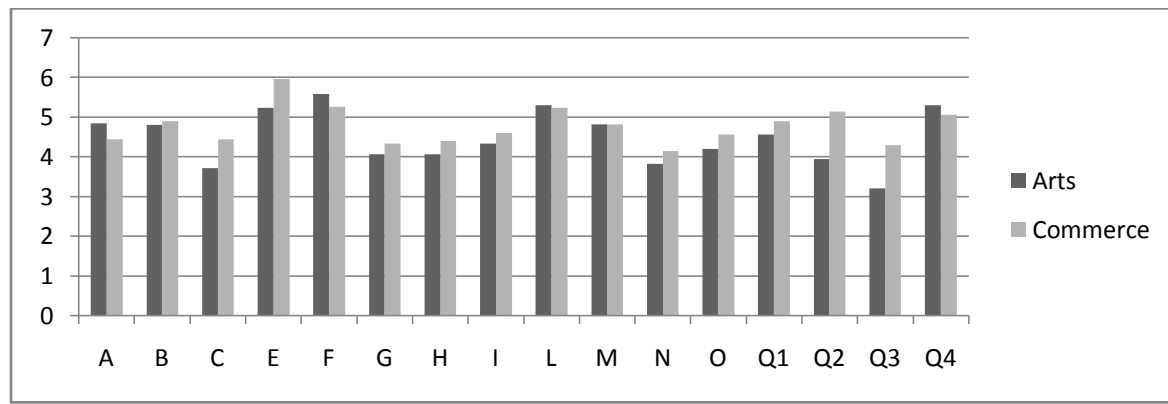
Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q4	Arts	5.30	2.13	0.30	0.5507		50
	Commerce	5.06	2.23	0.31		NS	50

Table No 1 is indicating the difference on personality traits of factors A to Q4 among Arts and commerce students. The difference on each factor is given the columns 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 1.8, 1.9, 1.10, 1.11, 1.12, 1.13, 1.14, 1.15, 1.16. 1.1 indicates factor A, 1.2 factor B, 1.3 factor C, 1.4 factor E, 1.5 factor F, 1.6 factor G, 1.7 factor H, 1.8 factor I, 1.9 factor L, 1.10 Factor M, 1.11 Factor N, 1.12 factor O, 1.13 factor Q1, 1.14 factor Q2, 1.15 Factor Q3, 1.16 Factor Q4.

‘t’ ratio of each factors is worked out and shown in the above columns. It clearly indicates that ‘t’ is not significant. Therefore hypothesis No 1 is accepted. Hence it is concluded that there is no significant difference on personality traits of Arts and commerce students.

We can justify this conclusion by saying that there is no much difference in personality traits of Art & commerce students. The development of personality is not affected by the faculty of education. There are many other environmental factors and heredity which shape our personality.

Chart:



Discussion on Table no 2

Difference on personality traits of factors A to Q4 among Commerce and Science students.

Table no 2.1: Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
A	Commerce	4.44	1.73	0.24	0.6882	NS	50
	Science	4.18	2.07	0.29			50

Table no: 2.2. Commerce and Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
B	Commerce	4.90	2.53	0.33	1.4141	NS	50
	Science	5.52	2.02	0.29			50

Table no: 2.3. Commerce and Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
C	Commerce	4.44	2.30	0.32	0.1235	NS	50
	Science	4.49	1.66	0.24			50

Table no: 2.4 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
E	Commerce	5.96	1.99	0.26	1.2888	NS	50
	Science	5.42	2.20	0.31			50

Table no: 2.5 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
F	Commerce	5.26	1.37	0.19	0.2253	NS	50
	Science	5.34	2.11	0.30			50

Table no: 2.6 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
G	Commerce	4.34	1.73	0.25	2.1313	NS	50
	Science	3.60	1.69	0.24			50

Table no: 2.7 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
H	Commerce	4.40	1.87	0.26	0.3248	NS	50
	Science	4.52	1.82	0.26			50

Table no: 2.8 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
I	Commerce	4.60	2.06	0.29	0.6183	NS	50
	Science	4.34	2.14	0.30			50

Table no: 2.9 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
L	Commerce	5.24	1.68	0.24	0.3426	NS	50
	Science	5.36	1.82	0.26			50

Table no: 2.10 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
M	Commerce	4.82	2.62	0.37	0.6709	NS	50
	Science	4.52	2.41	0.34			50

Table no: 2.11 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
N	Commerce	4.14	1.92	0.27	1.2777	NS	50
	Science	3.62	2.15	0.30			50

Table no: 2.12Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
O	Commerce	4.56	2.13	0.30	2.2793	NS	50
	Science	3.68	1.71	0.24			50

Table no: 2.13 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q1	Commerce	4.90	2.02	0.29	2.0755	NS	50
	Science	4.06	2.02	0.29			50

Table no: 2.14 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q2	Commerce	5.14	1.94	0.27	3.1691	NS	50
	Science	3.88	2.04	0.29			50

Table no: 2.15 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q3	Commerce	4.30	2.23	0.32	3.7756	NS	50
	Science	2.78	1.76	0.25			50

Table no: 2.16 Commerce X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q4	Commerce	5.06	2.23	0.13	0.4365	NS	50
	Science	5.26	2.35	0.33			50

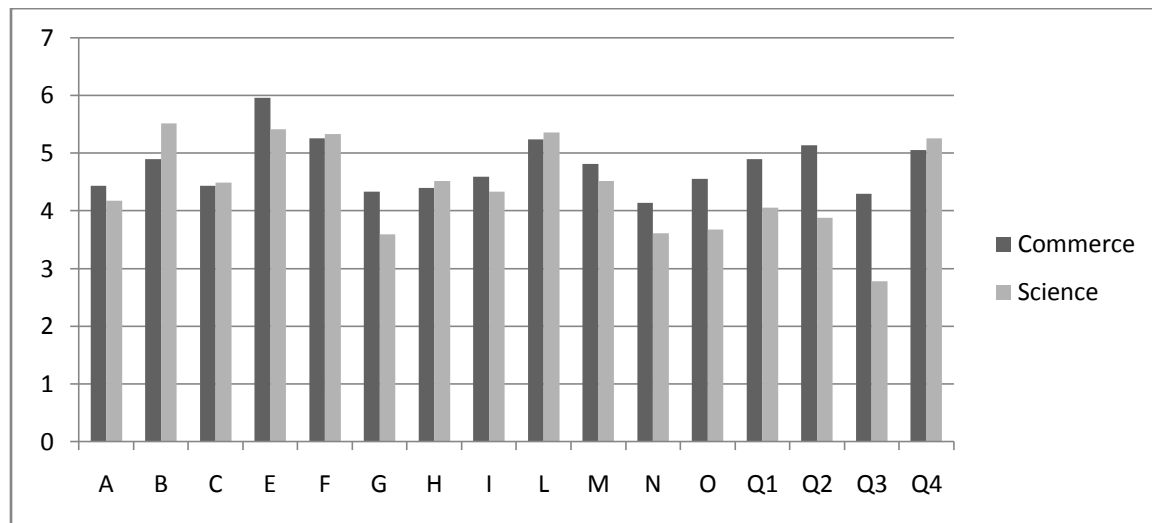
Table no 2 indicates the difference on personality factors (Traits) A to Q4 among commerce & science students. The difference in each factor is given in the columns 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 2.9, 2.10, 2.11, 2.12, 2.13, 2.14, 2.15, 2.16.

The figures in column 2.1 shows the difference in factor A, 2.2 factor B, 2.3 factor C, 2.4 factor E, 2.5 factor F, 2.6 factor G, 2.7 factor H, 2.8 factor I, 2.9 factor L, 2.10 factor M, 2.11 factor N, 2.12 factor O, 2.13 factor Q1, 2.14 factor Q2, 2.15 factor Q3, 2.16 factor Q4.

‘t’ ratio of each factors is worked out and shown in the above columns. It clearly indicates that ‘t’ is not significant. Therefore hypothesis No 2 is accepted. Hence it is concluded that there is no significant difference on personality traits of commerce and science students.

Commerce and science students do not differ on personality traits as the development of personality traits is not determined by the faculty of education of commerce & science. The determinants of personality are heredity environment and multiple other factors.

CHART:



Discussion on Table No 3

Difference on personality traits of factors A to Q4 among Arts and Science students.

Table no: 3.1 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
A	Arts	4.84	1.73	0.24	1.7312	NS	50
	Science	5.26	2.35	0.33			50

Table no: 3.2 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
B	Arts	4.80	2.28	0.32	1.6717	NS	50
	Science	5.52	2.02	0.29			50

Table no: 2.3 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
C	Arts	3.72	1.86	0.26	2.1692	NS	50
	Science	4.49	1.66	0.24			50

Table no: 3.4 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
E	Arts	5.24	1.87	0.26	0.4415	NS	50
	Science	5.42	2.20	0.31			50

Table no: 3.5 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
F	Arts	5.58	1.77	0.25	0.6164	NS	50
	Science	5.34	2.11	0.30			50

Table no: 3.6 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
G	Arts	4.06	1.48	0.21	1.4493	NS	50
	Science	3.60	1.69	0.24			50

Table no: 3.7 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
H	Arts	4.06	1.80	0.25	1.2702	NS	50
	Science	4.52	1.82	0.26			50

Table no: 3.8 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
I	Arts	4.34	2.07	0.29	0.0000	NS	50
	Science	4.34	2.14	0.30			50

Table no: 3.9 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
L	Arts	5.30	1.97	0.28	0.1583	NS	50
	Science	5.36	1.82	0.26			50

Table no: 3.10 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
M	Arts	4.82	2.62	0.37	0.5964	NS	50
	Science	4.52	2.41	0.34			50

Table no: 3.11 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
N	Arts	3.82	2.16	0.31	0.4640	NS	50
	Science	3.62	2.15	0.30			50

Table no: 3.12 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
O	Arts	4.20	1.77	0.25	1.4938	NS	50
	Science	3.68	1.71	0.24			50

Table no: 3.13 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q1	Arts	4.56	2.30	0.33	1.1525	NS	50
	Science	4.06	2.02	0.29			50

Table no: 3.14 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q2	Arts	3.94	1.65	0.23	0.1620	NS	50
	Science	3.88	2.04	0.29			50

Table no: 3.15 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q3	Arts	3.20	1.58	0.22	1.2546	NS	50
	Science	2.78	1.76	0.25			50

Table no: 3.16 Arts X Science

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q4	Arts	5.30	2.13	0.30	0.0891	NS	50
	Science	5.26	2.35	0.33			50

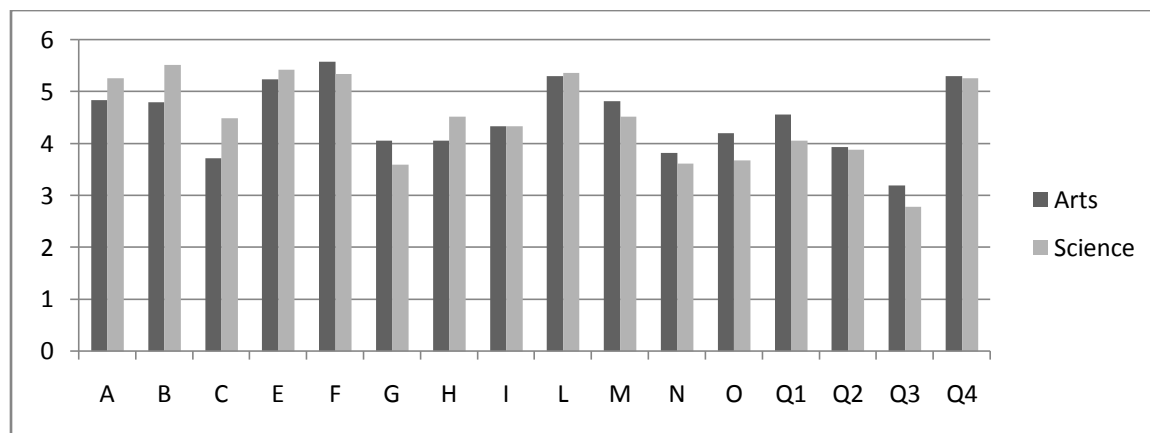
Table no 3 indicates the difference on personality factors (Traits) A to Q4 among arts & science students. The difference in each factor is given in the columns 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, 3.10, 3.11, 3.12, 3.13, 3.14, 3.15, 3.16.

The figures in column 3.1 shows the difference in factor A, 3.2 factor B, 3.3 factor C, 3.4 factor E, 3.5 factor F, 3.6 factor G, 3.7 factor H, 3.8 factor I, 3.9 factor L, 3.10 factor M, 3.11 factor N, 3.12 factor O, 3.13 factor Q1, 3.14 factor Q2, 3.15 factor Q3, 3.16 factor Q4.

‘t’ ratio of each factors is worked out and shown in the above columns. It clearly indicates that ‘t’ is not significant at 0.05 level. Therefore hypothesis No 3 is accepted. Hence it is concluded that there is no significant difference on personality traits among of arts and science students.

The result shows that the arts & science students do not differ significantly on personality traits. The reason for this result is that personality traits are not determined by the faculty of education of art & science students. The determinants of personality are heredity, environment and multiple other factors.

Chart:



Discussion on Table No 4

Difference on personality traits of factors A to Q4. among Male and Female students.

Table no: 4.1 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
A	Male	4.85	1.92	0.22	2.4748	NS	75
	Female	4.12	1.70	0.20			75

Table no: 4.2 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
B	Male	5.04	2.18	0.25	0.1826	NS	75
	Female	5.11	2.29	0.26			75

Table no: 4.3 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
C	Male	4.49	1.98	0.23	1.7424	NS	75
	Female	3.93	1.95	0.23			75

Table no: 4.4 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
E	Male	5.27	1.83	0.21	1.6570	NS	75
	Female	5.81	2.20	0.25			75

Table no: 4.5 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
F	Male	5.45	1.92	0.22	0.4145	NS	75
	Female	5.33	1.61	0.19			75

Table no: 4.6 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
G	Male	4.21	1.61	0.19	1.5870	NS	75
	Female	3.79	1.68	0.19			75

Table no: 4.7 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
H	Male	4.91	1.89	0.22	4.0804	SIG 0.01	75
	Female	3.75	1.58	0.18			75

Table no: 4.8 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
I	Male	4.85	1.93	0.22	2.5585	NS	75
	Female	4.00	2.15	0.25			75

Table no: 4.9 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
L	Male	5.23	1.67	0.19	0.4933	NS	75
	Female	5.37	1.96	0.23			75

Table no: 4.10 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
M	Male	4.85	2.37	0.27	0.6914	NS	75
	Female	4.59	2.35	0.27			75

Table no: 4.11 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
N	Male	4.47	1.89	0.22	3.7313	SIG 0.01	75
	Female	3.25	2.09	0.24			75

Table no: 4.12 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
O	Male	4.44	1.70	0.20	1.9059	NS	75
	Female	3.85	2.05	0.24			75

Table no: 4.13 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q1	Male	4.91	1.76	0.20	2.3278	NS	75
	Female	4.11	2.40	0.28			75

Table no: 4.14 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q2	Male	4.77	1.71	0.20	2.9072	NS	75
	Female	3.87	2.09	0.24			75

Table no: 4.15 Male X Female

Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q3	Male	3.75	2.05	0.24	2.0053	NS	75
	Female	3.11	1.86	0.21			75

Table no: 4.16 Male X Female

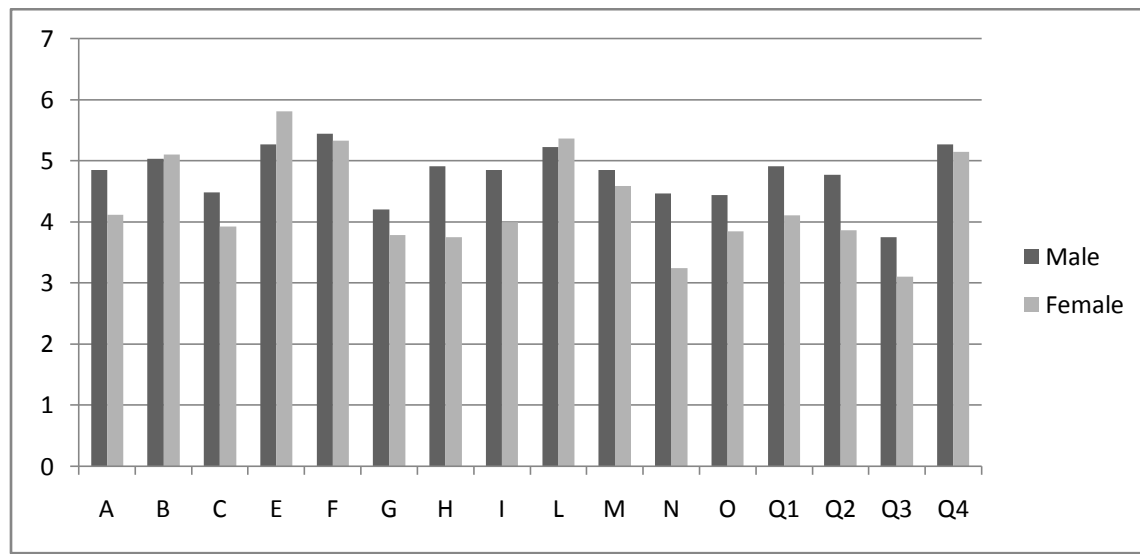
Factor	Group	Mean	SD	SEM	t	level	N
Q4	Male	5.27	2.09	0.24	0.3291	NS	75
	Female	5.15	2.36	0.27			75

Table no 4 indicates the differences on personality factors (Traits) A to Q4 among boys & girls. The difference in each factor is given in the columns 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16.

The figures in column 4.1 shows the difference in factor A, 4.2 factor B, 4.3 factor C, 4.4 factor E, 4.5 factor F, 4.6 factor G, 4.7 factor H, 4.8 factor I, 4.9 factor L, 4.10 factor M, 4.11 factor N, 4.12 factor O, 4.13 factor Q1, 4.14 factor Q2, 4.15 factor Q3, 4.16 factor Q4.

‘t’ ratio of each factors is worked out and shown in the above columns. The results indicate that except 4.7 H factor and 4.11 N factor ‘t’ is not significant at .05 level. Therefore it is concluded that except factor H and Factor N there is no significant difference in the remaining factors of personality traits of boys and girls. ‘t’ ratio of H factors and N factor is significant. Factor H means “timid” and “venturesome” that is on timidity and venture trait of personality, boys and girls significantly differ. About venture or timidity, there may be differences in boys and girls. It is quite likely that some girls may be more adventurous than boys. Similarly, the results about factor N refer to forthright & shrewd. The girls & boys differ in this trait.

CHART:



CONCLUSIONS

1. There is no significant difference on personality traits of arts and commerce students ('t' not significant, see table No 1)
2. There is no significant difference on personality traits of commerce and science students ('t' not significant, see table No 2)
3. There is no significant difference on personality traits of arts and science students ('t' not significant, see table No 3)
4. There is no significant difference on personality traits – A, B, C, E, F, G, I, L, M, O, Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 of boys and girls ('t' for above factors is not significant, see table No 4)

There is a significant difference on personality traits of H & N of boys and girls ('t' for these factors is significant, see table No 4)

SUGGESTIONS

1. A research project may be undertaken to compare personality traits of graduates and post graduate students.
2. A similar study can be done with the student of engineering and medical students.
3. A similar study can be performed on international basis.
4. Personality traits can be measured by many other personality inventories

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Annexure-A

Explanation of factors

Sr No	Factor	Low score	High score
1	A	Reserved	Out going
2	B	Less intelligent	High intelligent
3	C	Affected by feelings	Emotionally stable
4	E	Submissive	Dominant
5	F	Serious	Happy quickly
6	G	Expedient	Conscientious
7	H	Timid	Venturesome
8	I	Tough minded	Sensitive
9	L	Trusting	Suspicious
10	M	Practical	Imaginative
11	N	Forthright	Shrewd
12	O	Self assured	Apprehensive
13	Q1	Conservative	Experimenting
14	Q2	Group dependent	Self sufficient
15	Q3	Uncontrolled	Controlled
16	Q4	Relaxed	Tense

Effect of Mindfulness and Cognitive Behavior Therapy on Conduct and Scholastic Problems of Marginalized Children

Dr. D. S. Charan *

ABSTRACT:-

The Purpose of the study is to measure Intelligence ability and social intelligence of students and thus we know that where should they stand in world of today and prepare them for World of Tomorrow. For this researcher has decided to Organize standardize social intelligence test for study interaction measures of Intelligent ability and social intelligent on scholastic achievement for standard IX students of Dahod Taluka, in Dahod District.

Intelligence is a property of mind that encompasses many related abilities such as the capacities to reason to plan, to solve problems, to think abstractly, to comprehend ideas, to use languages and to learn. Even in some cases intelligence may include traits such as creativity, personality, character knowledge or wisdom.

Types of Intelligence is classification are made by 'Thorndike (1927)

a) Concrete Intelligence b) Abstract Intelligence c) social Intelligence

According to spearman (1923), "Intelligence is which involves mainly the education of relations and correlation" Are all people equally intelligent? Are all the students fit for school instruction? No, But only some persons are intelligent, they Stands First in Class exam and they will some more marks.

Schooling is an important factors that affecting intelligence. Children who do not attend school or who attend intermittently score more poorly on IQ tests than those who attend regularly and Children who move from low quality schools to high quality school tend to show improvement in I.Q. Besides transmitting information to students directly, school teach problem solving, abstract thinking and how to question attention all skills required on IQ tests.

Introduction

The present educational system does not give guarantee for a successful life. The person with high intellect cannot be always successful. A vacuum is realized over the years. Many have been tried to till the gap between the success and failure caused by mind and heart.

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The present study continues on the same Line. The advancement in science & technology need an individual to development skills and competence to scope the extenal demand. The success and chances of a productive life of a student are directly dpended on social intelligence and intelligence Ability. Survival in today's competitive world is something, which cannot be determined by the intellect alone, continued existence in such and unpredictable environment calls for the mutual functioning of the intellect , emotions and the method of coping with daily stress and demands. Smita singh & Bala koteswari, Edutracks August(2006) . Therefore, the present study is conducted to explore the interaction effect of intelligence ability and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of secondary schools students.

Objectives of the study:

- To study the impact of intelligence ability and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of student of the standard IX.
- To study the impact of intelligence and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of their area of intrest in standard IX students .
- To study the impact of intelligence ability and social intelligence on the scholastic achivement of their gebder of students of the standard IX.

Hypothesis of the study:

The falling null hypothesis will be formulated for the present study.

- There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of students of standard IX
- There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of rural and urban students.
- There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of boys and girls students of standard IX

Variable of the Study

(A) Independent variables

- 1 Intelligence ability
- 2 Social Intelligence
- 3 Gender
- 4 Area

(B) Dependent variables

1 Scholastic achievement

Delimitation of the Study

This study is restricted only for the students who enrolled to standard IX during the academic year-2012-13 in GSEB grant –in-aid secondary schools offering education through Gujarati medium of Dahod taluka in Dahod district.

Sample

The investigator selected the sample by using simple random sampling method and stratified random sampling method. The sample of the study consists of 296 students of IX standard studying in different area of schools of Dahod taluka which includes 136 boys and 160 girls.

Methodology of the Study

The methodology adopted in the present study to achieve the stated objectives was survey method.

Tools Used For Data Collection

The following standardized tests were used for data collection.

Intelligence ability

For the purpose of measuring ability of IX standard students, the researcher used the Desai's Verbal and non-verbal Group intelligence test designed and developed by Dr. K.G.Desai

Social Intelligence

For the purpose of measuring social intelligence of standard IX students, the researcher used the social intelligence scale designed and developed by Dr. N.K.Chadda and Ms. Usha Gianeshan (2004)

Scholastic Achievement

For the purpose of measuring scholastic Achievement of student of standard IX, the researcher collected the result of first semester exam of students of standard IX in year 2012-13.

Data Analysis and Interpretation:

Following statistical techniques were used for the data analysis and interrelation

- F- test

Testing of null hypotheses:

HO1:

There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of students of standard IX.

Table - 1

Impact in the mean score of Intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement

(N = 296)

S V	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	Significance
Main Impacts					
Intelligence Ability	1	2067.90	2067.90	29.52	S*
Social Intelligence	1	585.20	585.21	8.35	S*
2 – Way Interaction					
Intelligence X	1	187.90	187.90	2.68	NS
Social Intelligence					
Error	292	20455	70.05		

* Significant at 0.01 Level of Significance.

The above null hypothesis is tested using the data presented in the table...1

It is observed from the table - 1 that the F - value 2.68 is smaller than table value at both 0.05 and 0.01 Level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted so, the F-value found to be not significant Hence, it is inferred there is no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social intelligence on scholastic achievement of students of standard IX.

Table – 2

Impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement of rural area students

(Rural Area students-108)

S V	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	Significance
Main Impacts					
Intelligence Ability	1	245.75	245.75	4.72	5**
Social Intelligence	1	83.69	83.69	1.600	N S
2 – Way Interaction					
Intelligence Ability X	1	0.0643	0.0643	0.00122	NS
Social Intelligence					
Error	104	5414.13	52.05		

* * Significant at 0.05 level of Significance

There will be no significant impact in the mean score of Intelligence ability and social intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of rural students of standard IX.

The above null hypothesis is tested using the data presented in the table – 2, it is observed from the table – 2 that the F – value 0.00122 is smaller than table value at both 0.05 and 0.01 level of Significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, so, the F- value found to be not significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement at rural students at standard IX.

TABLE – 3

Impact in the mean score of Intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement of urban students (N = 188)

S V	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	Significance
Main Impacts					
Intelligence Ability	1	2633.81	2633.81	30.93	5*
Social Intelligence	1	766.83	766.83	8.72	5*

2 – Way Interaction					
Intelligence Ability X	1	455.12	455.12	5.27	5**
Social Intelligence					
Error	184	16188.31	87.97		

* Significant at 0.01 level, ** significant at 0.05 level.

There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of urban students of students IX.

The above null hypothesis is tested using the data presented in the table – 3. It is observed from the table – 3 that the F – value 5.27 is greater than table value of 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. So, the F- value found to be significant. Hence, it is inferred that there is significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement of urban students of standard IX.

TABLE – 4

Impact in the mean score of Intelligence and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement.

(Boys students - 136)

S V	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	Significance
Main Impacts					
Intelligence Ability	1	433.8	433.8	6.195	5**
Social Intelligence	1	187.23	187.23	2.67	NS
2 – Way Interaction					
Intelligence Ability X	1	25.44	25.44	0.36	NS
Social Intelligence					
Error	132	9243.12	70.02		

** significant at 0.05 level of significance

There will be no significant impact in the mean score of Intelligence ability and social Intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of boys of standard IX.

The above null hypothesis is tested using the data presented in the table – 4. It is observed from the table – 4 that the F – value 0.36 is smaller than table value as both 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted so, the F – value found to be not significant. Hence, it is inferred that there is no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic Achievement of boys of standard IX.

TABLE – 5

Impact in the mean score of Intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement of Girls Students
(Grits students - 160)

S V	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	Significance
Main Impacts					
Intelligence Ability	1	1082.43	1082.43	22.036	S*
Social Intelligence	1	180.18	180.18	3.66	NS
2 – Way Interaction					
Intelligence Ability X	1	633.21	633.21	12.89	S*
Social Intelligence					
Error	156	7663.92	49.12		

* * significant at 0.01 level of significance.

There will be no significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social intelligence ability on scholastic achievement of girls of standard IX.

The above null hypothesis is tested using the data presented in the table – 5 It is observed from the table – 5 that the F – value 12.89 is greater than table value at 0.01 level of significance. Therefore. The null hypothesis is rejected. So, the F – value found to be significant. Hence, it is inferred that there is significant impact in the mean score of intelligence ability and social Intelligence on scholastic achievement of girls of standard IX.

MAJOR FINDING

- Intelligence ability has significant impact on the scholastic achievement of students of standard IX.
- Social Intelligence has significant impact on the scholastic achievement of students of standard IX.

- Intelligence ability and social Intelligence do not have significant impact on the scholastic Achievement of students of standard IX.
- Intelligence Ability has significant impact on the scholastic achievement of rural area students of standard IX.
- Social Intelligence does not have significant impact on the scholastic Achievement of Rural area students of standard IX.
- Intelligence Ability and social Intelligence do not have significant impact on the scholastic Achievement of rural area students of standard IX
- Intelligence Ability and social Intelligence have significant impact on the scholastic achievement of urban area Students of standard IX.
- Intelligence Ability and social Intelligence do not have significant impact on the scholastic Achievement of boys of standard IX.
- Intelligence Ability and social Intelligence have significant impact on the scholastic Achievement of girls of standard IX.

SUGGESTIONS

- Research may be undertaken by taking large sample
- Study may be conducted by including the students of English medium
- study may be conducted by including variables like emotional intelligence, adjustment, personality, attitude etc.
- Study may be conducted by including the sample from VIII standard, X standard etc.....

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Emotional Competence of Adolescents in Joint Family and Nuclear Family

Ms. Hiral Y. Suthar*

ABSTRACT

The present investigation was undertaken to find the impact of emotional competence of adolescents of joint and nuclear family from urban and rural area. The emotional competence scale was administered on 80 adolescents of Vadodara district. Scale was used for data collection is personal datasheet and Emotional competence scale developed by Dr. Sharma H.C and Dr. Bhardwaj R.L (2007). Data were analysed by 't' test. Results show, There is difference found on Emotional competence among adolescent's joint and nuclear family. There is no significant difference in emotional competence of boys and girls. There is no significant difference in emotional competence of adolescents of urban and rural area. Adolescents of joint family have better Emotional competence than adolescents of nuclear family. Girls have better emotional competence than boys.

Introduction:

An effective way to grasp just what is involved in emotional competence is to look inside oneself. Research studies have established that emotional competence and family support play a prominent role in adolescent's life. Bhardwaj (1977) focused on the importance of adequate expression and control of emotion in achievement of handicapped children. Emotional competence is perceived as the prime predictor of assessing an individual's chance of success in life. Nuclear family can be defined as "a small group composed of husband and wife and children who constitute a unit apart from the rest of the community". A nuclear family is mostly independent. The general view of the modern nuclear family is that it is not highly ritualized and institutionalized entity. It is rather what "burgess" has called unit of interacting personalities, set in a cultural framework, responsible for a limit number of social functions. It is held together by internal cohesion rather than external pressure. It is more unstable than what it was in the past; still it is free to fit variation in human personality

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The characteristics of good emotional competence can be described in term of feelings about ourselves, about others and about the demand of life. The element of emotional competence are self –acceptance. Unfortunately, not all children come from such mentally and emotionally healthy homes. Many children have parents who cannot cope with reality very well themselves. They may be so overwhelmed by the tasks of living that they ignore their children.

Family is the basis and universal social structure of human society. It fulfills need and performs function, which are indispensable for the continuity, integration and change in the emotionally system. Poor emotional competence is related to parenting deprivation, with those institutionalized early in life having the poorest emotional competence. The kind of social and emotionally environment parents provide will make a difference in the emotional competence development of the adolescents. Good parent-child relationships reflect successful emotional competence. Success and happy in school are proof of their parents good roles.

Research evidence suggest that the family's support and involvement in the early period of the child's and teenager's life is a is a strong predicator of a healthy psychological and emotional health as an adult(**Rohner and Veneziano, 2001**)

White, (1959) refers to emotional competence as “an appropriate response to the given emotional experience” it means doing an ordinary thing in an extraordinary manner. Hence there is a need to study and ascertain the role of joint family and nuclear family's involvement in adolescents Emotional competence. Where family's lake of care and guidance, their economically and social problems are critical to adolescent's emotional competence

OBJECTIVE:

- To study of emotional competence of adolescents of joint family and nuclear family.
- To study of emotional competence of adolescents in relation to their gender.
- To study of emotional competence of adolescents in relation to their living area.

HYPOTHESIS:

- There is no significant difference of emotional competence of adolescents in relation to their family.
- There is no significant difference of emotional competence of adolescents in relation to their gender.

- There is no significant difference of emotional competence of adolescents in relation to their living area.

Methodology:

RESEARCH DESIGN:

This research was adopted 2x2 factorial designs with 2 types of gender (boys and girls), 2 types of family (joint family and nuclear family). And two type of area (Urban and Rural).

2x2x2

	A1 boys		A2 Girls	
	B1	B2	B1	B2
C1 Urban	N=10	N=10	N=10	N=10
C2 Rural	N=10	N=10	N=10	N=10

A-Gender

A1- Boys **A2-** Girls

B- Family

B1- Joint Family **B2-** Nuclear Family

C- Area

C1- Urban **C2-** Rural

SAMPLE:

In this present research 80adolescence were randomly selected as sample. Which are joint family and nuclear family's boys and girls from urban and rural area.Total 40 boys and 40 girls of joint family and nuclear family from urban and rural area were taken.

TOOLS USED:

The following tools were used in the present study:

1. Personal Data sheet:

A personal data sheet developed by the investigator was used to collect information about gender and family and their living area.

2. Emotional competence Scale:

Emotional competence Scale develop by Dr. Sharma H.C and Dr. Bharadwaj R.L(2007). The scale consists of 30 items to be responded on a 5-point rating scale. This scale measures five competencies.

1. Adequate Expression and Control of emotions
2. Adequate Depth of feeling
3. Ability to function with emotion.
4. Ability to cope with problem emotion
5. Enhancement of positive emotion.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

In this study 't' test was used for statistical analysis.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION:

Table No. 1

Means, SD and t-value on Emotional competence of Adolescents with respect to the Joint family and Nuclear family.

	Joint Family	Nuclear family	Remark
Mean	68.02	61.02	Significant at 0.01
SD	14.33	11.49	
T value	5.56		

Table no.1 that the mean of joint family is 68.02 and that of Nuclear family is 61.02. The SD for same group is 14.33 and 11.49 respectively. The t-value was found to be 5.56 and is significant at 0.01 levels. Hence the null hypothesis rejected. There is no significant difference in Emotional competence of adolescents of joint family and nuclear family is rejected. It is conclude that there is significant difference in adolescents of joint family and nuclear family. Adolescents of joint family have better Emotional competence than adolescents of nuclear family.

Table No. 2 Means, SD and t-value on Emotional competence of Adolescents with respect to their gender.

	Boys	Girls	Remark
Mean	61.76	63.04	Not Significant at 0.01
SD	11.74	14.27	
T value	1.11		

Table no.2 that the mean of boys is 61.76 and that of Girls is 63.04. The SD for same group are 11.74 and 14.27 respectively. The t-value was found to be 1.11 and it is not significant at 0.01 level. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant difference in emotional competence of boys and girls. However, from the Mean values, it is conclude that girls have better emotional competence than boys.

Table No. 3 Means, SD and t-value on Emotional Competence of Adolescents with respect to their living area.

	Urban	Rural	Remark
Mean	67.66	61.32	Not Significant at 0.01
SD	15.76	10.35	
T value	5.56		

Table no.3 that the mean of urban area is 67.66 and Rural area is 61.32. The SD for same group are 15.76 and 10.35 respectively. The t-value was found to be 5.56 and it is not significant at 0.01 level. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant difference in emotional competence adolescents of urban and rural area.

Conclusion:

- There is difference found on Emotional competence among adolescent's joint and nuclear family.
- There is no significant difference in emotional competence of boys and girls.
- There is no significant difference in emotional competence adolescents of urban and rural area.
- Adolescents of joint family have better Emotional competence than adolescents of nuclear family.
- Girls have better emotional competence than boys.

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Mental Health of Working and Non Working Women in Ahmadabad

Kiranben Vaghela*

Present researches have been done to know the effect of Working and Non Working Women's mental health. For this Total number of sample was 60 in which 30 working women from the age group of 20 to 40 years; And 30 non working women were taken the same age group. For the data collection MHI (Mental Health Inventory) by Dr. A. K Shrivastav was used for data analysis and concluded result 't' test was used. For this dimension implies that in positive sense that there is significant difference between working and non working women. The result indicate that working women a lot differ on mental health score as compared to non working women, working women have shown better mental health in compared to non working women .

Introduction:

Psychological diseases like stress, anxiety. Depression etc are burning problem of this area in every society and in every country. Science and technological revolution in different sphere of industrial production has been start in the last portion of this previous century. Some people know it as nuclear era, electronic era space era or information and technology era. However in reality the time is era of "Hurry and Worry". The effect of hurry and worry uncertainty, restlessness, tension and stress can feel here and there.

In this modern times people lose their physic strength because of that even losing their mental health too and become more aware for become patient of psychosomatic disorder. Because of that all are become more aware for mental health as compare to physical health. Here we all have a question, "what is mental health?" Different psychologists are trying to defined mental health by different way.

According to Sullivan, a healthy person is one who has syntaxes relationship with others and who reacts to people as they really are, not as symbol of past relationship. Thus, emphasis is on interpersonal relationship. Alder defined a healthy personality as one which experiences a sense of identification against infantile feeling of inferiority and helplessness.

Korchin (1976) believes that the concept of psychological health must focus on the ideal state, i.e. emphasis on the "positive well being" rather than on disease, statistical or conformity criteria.

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Godoy, Fernander, Garcia and Gonzaler (1983), argued that health must defined as a state of physical, social and psychological well rather than simply as an absence of illness or infinity.

They also stressed the importance of development of human potentials illness considered a reflection of individual response to stress and change in the social culture, economics and psychological environment.

There are many various factors effect on mental health, one of them is women. Present research is done to know that effect of working and non working women on mental health.

Problem of study

The problem of the present study is as under:

“A Comparative study of mental health among working and non working women”

Objectives of the study:

The main objectives of present study are as under:

1. To study of the mental health among working and non working women.
2. To study and compare the various dimension of mental health of working and non working women in khokhara area.

Hypothesis

The main hypothesis of present study is as under:

1. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in various dimension of mental health.
2. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in positive self evaluation.
3. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in perception of reality.
4. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in integration of personality.
5. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in autonomy.
6. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in oriented attitudes.
7. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in environmental mastery.

Variables

The variables of present study are having given in following.

In dependent variable:

Working and non working women in khokhara area.

Dependent variable:

Various dimension of mental health are measured by M.H.I

Sample:

The main aim of the present research is “A comparative study of mental health of working and non working women”. For this total no of sample were 60 in which 30 working women from the age group of 20 to 40 years. And 30 non working women were taken from the same age group.

Tool:

In the present research for the data collection Mental Health Inventory (M.H.I) by Dr. jagdish and Dr. A.K Shrivastava was used.

Mental Health Inventory (M.H.I) measure various dimension of mental health. They are Positive Self Evaluation (PSE), Perception of Reality (PR), Integration of Personality(IR), Autonomy(AUTNY), Group Oriented Attitude (GOA), Environmental Mastery(EM) and Overall in M.H.I. it has four alternative responses. They are ‘always’ ‘often’ ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ different sentences measure different dimension of mental health. Total score of every sentence measure overall mental health reliability of the test is 0.54 and validity of the test is 0.79.

Procedure:

After establishing report mental health inventory were administered individuals to every subject. All the instruction were strictly following which are been given the manual of inventory. The responses of inventory have scored as per scoring keys; which has given in the manual of inventory. The data was categories and arranged in respective table according to the stoical technique appraised.

Statically Analysis

The main aim of the present research is to study and compare to mental health between working and non working women. Scoring was done as per scoring key of the inventory to examine significantly difference between working and non working women. For data analysis ‘t’ test was used.

Results**Table: 1****N=60**

Show in Mean, SD, and 't' ratio of various group of age on score of various dimensions of mental health

Dimension of Mental Health	Group	N	Mean	SD	't'	Significant level
Positive Self Evaluation	Working women	30	33.73	3.32	2.29	0.05
	Non working women	30	31.80	3.19		
Perception of Reality	Working women	30	27.47	3.52	3.07	0.01
	Non working women	30	24.77	3.30		
Integration of Personality	Working women	30	34.97	5.52	1.16	N.S
	Non working women	30	33.43	4.84		
Autonomy	Working women	30	17.97	2.25	5.35	0.01
	Non working women	30	14.60	3.71		
Group Oriented Attitude	Working women	30	32.40	4.40	4.90	0.01
	Non working women	30	27.90	2.44		
Environmental mastery	Working women	30	30.40	3.57	1.24	N.S
	Non working women	30	29.17	4.11		
Overall mental health	Working women	30	17.57	9.51	2.87	0.01
	Non working women	30	17.17	10.45		

Discussion:

In result table an attempt is to find out the different between working and non working women in various dimension of mental health score with 't' test.

't' value of working and non working women of positive self evaluation score is 2.29, which is significant act 0.05 level. It means working women are significant differ on Positive Self Evaluation score as compare to non working women. Working women have shown better Positive Self Evaluation by getting high mean score $M=33.73$ then non working women mean $M=31.80$.

't' value of working and non working women of perception of reality is 3.07 which is significant at 0.01 level. It means working women are significant differ on Perception of Reality score as compare to non working women. Working women have shown better Perception of Reality by getting high mean score $M=27.47$ then non working women mean $M=24.77$

't' value of working and non working women of Integration of Personality is 1.16 which is not significant. Working women have shown better Integration of Personality by getting high mean score $M=34.97$ then non working women $M=33.43$

't' value of working and non working women of Autonomy is 5.35 which is significant at 0.01 level. It means working women are significant differ on Autonomy score as compare to non working women. Working women have shown better Autonomy by getting high mean score $M=17.97$ then non working women $M=14.60$

't' value of working and non working women of Group Oriented Attitudes is significant at 0.01 level. It means working are working women significant differ on oriented attitudes score as compare to non working women. Working women have shown better Oriented Attitudes by getting high mean score $M=32.40$ then non working women $M=27.90$

't' value of working and non working women of Environmental Mastery is 1.24 which is not significant. Working women have shown better Environment Mastery by getting high mean score $M=30.40$ then non working women $M=29.17$

't' value of working and non working women of Overall Mental Health is 2.87 which is significant at 0.01 level. It means working women are significantly differ on overall mental health score as compare to non working women have shown better overall mental health score as compare to non working women. Working women have shown better overall mental health by getting high mean score $M=17.57$ then non working women $M=17.17$.

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Peer-group context insecurity' in upper and lower class youth

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ABSTRACT:

Present study represents a comparative account of 'Insecurity' in upper and lower class youth. Here we have chosen 18 to 35 years old fellows in both upper and lower class category. Insecurity measurement was carried out by using 'Scale of Insecurity' created by Dr. Beena Shah. After statistical analysis of all data, we found vast different in degree of Insecurity between Upper and lower class youth. We have studied School context Insecurity by taking three independent variables using F-Anova test with 2x2x2 factorial design.

KEYWORDS:

Insecurity; School context Insecurity; F-Anova test

INTRODUCTION:

Man interacts with man by many ways during his whole life and strikes with many hurdles while interacting with such biotic factors. He faces many state of his own mind. One of these state is Inferiority complex. When man does not get his basic requirements, he gradually develops Inferiority complex in his mind. And this Inferiority complex gradually develops in to 'Insecurity'. Insecurity means "The Inferiority complex created due to the external factors/catalysis of surrounding environment". Moreover Dr Sigmund Freund said that man suffered by inferiority complex with rather higher intensity in groups. Here we try to measure the degree of Peer Group-context Insecurity by taking three independent variables in account (Raja, 1982).

OBJECTIVES:

- To measure degree of Peer Group context Insecurity in upper and lower class youth
- To compare degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between upper and lower class youth

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

(Dhila, 2004; Shah, 1989)

- Independent Variables

A = Economical Status	A ₁ = Upper class (Annual income > 20,000 rupees)
	A ₂ = Lower class (Annual income ≤ 20,000 rupees)
B = Area\Location	B ₁ = City (Town)
	B ₂ = Rural
C = Sex	C ₁ = Boys
	C ₂ = Girl

- Dependent Variables

Degree of Peer Group context Insecurity

HYPOTHESIS:

Ho₁ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between Upper and lower class youth.

Ho₂ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between city and rural area youth.

Ho₃ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between boys and girls.

TOOLS:

- Personal information sheet
- Insecurity measurement scale (Dr. Beena Shah)
- Statistical analysis of data by F-Anova test using 2x2x2 factorial design

SAMPLE:

Total 240 youngsters were selected. Out of 240, 120 were of Upper class and 120 were of lower class. Out of these 120, 60 were from city/town area and 60 were from rural area. Sex ratio was maintained 1:1 in this sample of 60. It means out of these 60, 30 were boys and 30 were girls.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

(Parekh and Dixit, 1995)

Table -1

Summary of the 2x2x2 analysis of variance based on degree of Peer Group context

Insecurity with respect to three independent variables

Score of Variable	Sum of Square	DF	Mean of Square	F	Sig.
Status (A)	611.204	1	1.204	11.29	0.01
Aria (B)	5.704	1	5.704	5.33	0.01
Sex (C)	49.504	1	49.504	4.62	N.S.
A x B	44.204	1	44.204	4.12	N.S.
B x C	27.334	1	27.339	2.55	N.S.
A x C	71.504	1	71.504	6.58	0.05
A x B x C	105.337	1	105.337	9.84	0.01

Table -2

Mean Scores and difference of Mean degree of Peer Group Peer Group Insecurity with respect to three independent variables

Independent Variables		N	Mean(M)	Difference Of Mean
Status (A)	Upper	120	12.18	3.2
	Lower	120	8.98	
Aria (B)	City(Town)	120	10.43	0.3
	Rural	120	10.73	
Sex (C)	Boys	120	10.73	6.9
	Girls	120	11.03	

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

H₀₁ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between Upper and lower class youth.

The 'F – Value' for first set of independent variables were shown in table-1. This result has 0.01 significance value. So above said hypothesis **H₀₁** cannot be accepted because result has significant difference. Thus statistical data of table-1 clearly shown that there is significant difference in the degrees of Peer Group context Insecurity between Upper and lower class youth.

H₀₂ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between city and rural area youth.

The 'F – Value' for second set of independent variables were shown in table-1. This result has 0.01 significance value. So above said hypothesis **H₀₂** cannot be accepted because result has significant difference. Thus statistical data of table-1 clearly shown that there is significant difference in the degrees of Peer Group context Insecurity between city and rural area youth. Mean values for city and rural area were 11.09 and 8.05 respectively (Table-2). These mean values concluded that the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity is significantly higher in city area than that rural area youth.

H₀₃ : There is no significant difference between Means(M) of the degree of Peer Group context Insecurity between boys and girls.

The 'F – Value' for first independent variables were shown in table-1. This result has no significance value. So above said hypothesis **H₀₃** can be accepted because result has significant difference. Thus statistical data of table-1 clearly shown that there is no significant difference in the degrees of Peer Group context Insecurity between boys and girls.

CONCLUSION:

Finally we can conclude this study in following three conclusions:

- Peer Group context Insecurity is significantly higher in lower class than that of upper class.
- Peer Group context Insecurity is almost equal in city area than that rural area youth.
- Peer Group context Insecurity is insignificantly differ between girls and boys.

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Mental Health and Marital Adjustment among Working and Non Working Women

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to assess the status of mental health and marital adjustment of the working and non working women. The random sample consisted of 30 working women and 30 non working women selected. Mental Health Inventory by Dr. A.K. Shreevastav and Dr. Jagdish and marital adjustment inventory by P. Kumar and K. Rohatgi. Here t' test was applied to check the significance of mental health and marital adjustment in working and non working women.

The result shows that there is a significant difference between working and non working women in mental health and marital adjustment so the Hypothesis is not accepted.

INTRODUCTION

In order to find happiness, modern human beings are trying their level best in more ways than one. Human beings have to face many challenges and problems in life and nowadays and everyone has to be mentally as well as physically prepared for such situations. This kind of strength is required in order to cope with modern difficult circumstances.

21st century has been a new Dawn for women in terms of progress as they are matching every step with men. They have to always be ahead of the situation within the society. Important junctures in everyone's life (especially women) are birth, marriage, occupation and death. Talking about marriage as an institution, we can say that it changes the life of any individual, especially women, dramatically. They have to go through plenty of changes.

Women after marriage have to carry the burden of dual responsibilities. One is to take care of the biological parents and in addition to that they also have to equally take care of their parents-in-law. Women have to go through a lot of mental struggle in order to be a balancing force and solving all the domestic problems with extreme maturity.

A woman who is able to maintain her mental calm in all the situations can really be successful in all the phases of life. Problems with regard to modern society have multiplied courtesy which, she has to go through a lot of mental stress irrespective of whether she is a working or a non working woman.

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Present research therefore makes an attempt toward the focusing upon the mental health and marital peace of both working and non working women.

The sense of one's identity or self is an important dimension of individual's personality giving each one of us unique individuality. Women and depression is holding a relationship of much interest over the last two decades. As more and more women enter the work force, they are increasingly exposed not only of the same work environment as men, but also to pressure created by multiple roles and conflicting expectations (**Nelson and Burke 2000; Chang 2000**). It has long been observed that women are about twice as likely to become clinically depressed (to have dysthymia or unipolar depression) as are men. These differences occur in most countries around the world. (**Nolen - Hoeksema and Girgus, 1994; Whilelm and Roy, 2003; Ge and Conger, 2003**).

Depressions are normal features of our lives. Modernity brought women education in its wake and she changed the arena of activity. She stepped out of the house and joined service like man. Now she got admiration, equality and opportunity. But the euphoria was ephemeral as she was supposed to take to this job as an additional responsibility. She not expected to shrink household work. This brought problems like strain and depression. (**Pillai and Sen**) (1998).

Women by their very nature are expressive emotional and sensitive. Physiological social and cultural background of women probably plays a key role in mending a women's attitude and natures towards the external relation we know that women are generally more at risk to develop psychological disorder and depression in particular.

Health is a process, which evolves on environmental and historical lines towards farther objectives. Thus locals is always in a given control depends upon existing conditions which are themselves related to the changes that take place in the environment. Internal organic factors, their homeostatic state and interaction with the environmental life of an individual would be very simple if all the needs were automatically fulfilled. But it is a fact that there are many obstacles both environmental and personal that mental interface and such obstacles place an individual in a stressful situation.

In a book entitled mental hygiene in public health P. V. Lewkan has written that mentally healthy individual is one who is herself satisfied, lives peacefully with his neighbours, makes healthy citizens of his children and even after performing these fundamentals duties has enough energy left to do something of benefit to society? Possessing mental health, an individual can adjust properly to his environment, and can make the best effort for his own, his family's and his society's progress and betterment. The chief characteristic of mental health is adjustment. The

greater the degree of successful adjustment the greater will be the mental health of the individual. Lesser mental health will lead to less adjustment and greater conflict.

With regard to marital adjustment we may say that it is the state in which there is an overall feeling in husband and wife of happiness and satisfaction with their marriage. Most people marry with bundles of expectations, some of them are realistic but most of them are unrealistic to the core. This kind of situation makes marriage a very complex affair. 'Marital adjustment' as a phrase itself is questionable because adjustment is supposed to be a temporary thing whereas marriage is a life time commitment. One should not have to even think of adjusting as it only aggravates the problems. Marriage as a decision calls for extreme maturity. If taken under severe pressure, it may lead to disastrous situations especially for women. It actually works and grows as undetected cancer that kills slowly, softly but surely.

Perhaps half of the adults suffering from severe stress blame the deteriorating relationships on their spouse. Looking at the growing rate of divorces, court cases for alimony, physical abuses and single parents; it does seem as if handling a relationship can be a tricky and often taxing issue. The possible causes can be endless. More often than not, stress arising from marital relationships is manifested in chronic disorders such as depression, insomnia and hypertension. Since a relationship depends on the nature of the persons involved, it helps to seek the middle path when the inherent individual differences surface. It often helps to change one's attitude, go for counseling or talk openly with your spouse about problems facing your relationship

Methodology

OBJECTIVES:

1. The study of mental health among working and non working women.
2. The study of marital adjustment among working and non working women.
3. The study of mental health and marital adjustment among working and non working women.

HYPOTHESES:

1. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in mental health.
2. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in marital adjustment.
3. There is no significant difference between working and non working women in mental health and marital adjustment.

SAMPLE:

The sample was stratified of married women from Bhavnagar city among them 30 from working women and from 30 non working women.

VARIABLE:

In depended variable.

1. Working women
2. Non working women

DEPENDED VARIABLE:

1. The gets on marital health among working and non working women.
2. The gets on marital adjustment among working and non working women.

TOOLS:

1. Individual Information sheet.
2. Mental health and marital adjustment inventory

The mental health gust constructed and standardized by A.K. Shreevastav and Dr. Jagdish used from the study. This scale reliability **0.73** and validity of **0.54** The marital adjustment guest constructed and standardized by P. Kumar and K.Rohatgi used from the study. This scale reliability of **0.71** and a validity of **0.84**.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In this study t' test was conducted as a statistical technique to find out the aim.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION:

't' ratio of the mental health between working and non working women.

Table-1

Variable	N	M	SD	't' value	Level of Significance
Working women	30	184.23	13.45	2.13	0.05
Non working women	30	175.73	17.36		

****p<0.05**

Table-2

't' ratio of the marital adjustment between working and non working women.

Variable	N	M	SD	't' value	Level of Significance
Working women	30	20.33	2.96	2.46	0.05
Non working women	30	20.47	3.95		

****p<0.05**

DISCUSSION:

Table: 1

The outcome of the present study clearly indicates that there is a lot of difference between the working and non working women in terms of mental health. The mean of working women is 184.23 and non working women are 175.73. It is clear that the health level of non working women is less as compared to working women. On the basis of this result we can say that because of heaps of mental pressure with regard to bringing up the children, maintaining pleasant relationship with in laws and their relatives and above all having good compatibility with the husband, extreme isolation are some the factors insofar as mental health is concerned and it is evident from the result that non working women suffer more as compared to working woman.

According to the 't' test the numeric value that we get is 2.13 which are significant etc. 0.05 levels. Therefore the hypothesis that there is no difference between working and nonworking women in mental health stands rejected.

Table: 2

The outcome of the present study clearly indicates that there is a difference between the working and non working women in terms of marital adjustment. The mean of working women is 20.33 and non working women are 22.47. It is clear that the adjustment level of working women is less as compared to non working women. It is evident therefore that the responsibilities like done social, with regard to child care, cordial relationship with in laws and

their relatives and satisfactory relationship with the husband etc are the factors that are very important in marital adjustment. No matter how responsible a woman is, her marital life suffers a lot because of social indignation.

According to the t' test the numeric value that we get is 2.46 which is significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, hypothesis that there is no difference between working and non-working women in marital adjustment stands rejected.

In modern times, price rise has created multiple problems and as a result the financial responsibilities are on both, wife and husband. We can say therefore that there are a lot of problems that arise with regard to adjustment which later on results into adjustment disorder. Every individual therefore has to be aware enough about the mental health problems that may arise. If proper precautions are taken, I am sure there will be significant decrease in the issue of marital adjustment and mental health.

CONCLUSION:

There is a significant difference between Working and Non-Working Women in Mental Health and Marital Adjustment. Therefore, the Hypothesis here stands not accepted.

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Correlation between Personality Types and Color Shade Preference

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ABSTRACT:

The main aim of this study was to find out whether the color shade preferences of individuals, grouped according to their personality types are alike or not. The researchers also tried to study the difference in color shade preferences based on gender differences. The objective was to understand whether the color shade preferences of individuals are affected by their individual personality types or not and whether gender plays any role in selection of color shades of individuals. The study sample consisted of a total of 80 subjects, randomly selected from within the age group of 18-25. An attempt was made to maintain a balance between two genders and across the ages. The research instruments used were Eysenck's Personality Test (to measure the personality types) and a separate Colour Bar- Colour Preference Test was designed to serve the purpose of this study. The subjects were made to fill both the questionnaires and then the items were scored and results were analyzed. Positive scoring was done for Eysenck's personality questionnaire and negative scoring was used to score the Colour Bar-Colour Preference Test. The data collected was divided into: Introverts (female, male) and Extroverts (female, male). From the data collected the mean, standard deviation and correlation between extraversion scores and the most preferred colour scores, for all the four groups. The mean, standard deviation, and correlation for the four groups was found to be 436.4 (IF), 529.2 (IM), 504 (EF), 453.4 (EM); 5.47 (IF), 6.52 (IM), 5.48 (EF), 6.93(EM); -0.3 (IF), -0.1 (IM), 0.1 (EF) and 0.5 (EM) respectively. From this the conclusion was drawn that there was no significant correlation found between the personality types and colour shade preferences of the subjects except in the case of extroverted males.

Recommendations: Increase the sample size as that proved to be a limitation to this study.

A study across ages is also possible and might give different results.

KEY WORDS: Colour, Personality, Correlation, Colour Bar- Colour Preference Test.

INTRODUCTION

Various studies have been conducted across the globe to understand and establish a correlation between colour shade preferences and difference in personality types. The results of majority of the studies show that colour shade preference is significantly affected by the personality types of individuals. The aim of this study is to reconfirm and re-establish the correlations between the variables.

As per a recent study conducted by Dunja Cijic and Vojislava Bujarski, in 2010, it is evident that there exists a clear distinction in the colour shades preferred by different personalities. As a result of the study it was seen that social introverts preferred darker, duller shades while the extroverts were seen to prefer brighter shades.

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Another thesis presented to the faculty of the department of psychology at Emporia Kansas State College by Stephen DeWith Smith, 1976, also attempts to study the relationships between the colour preferences and personality traits of humans. Using Edward's Personal Preference Schedule (1959 edition) - for personality and Luscher Colour Test (short form): the four primary colours- for colour preference, it was concluded that a significant amount of positive correlation between the colour preference and personality traits was there.

Thus the main objective of this study is to find out whether or not an individual's colour shade preference is affected by his personality type and whether the selection of colours is affected by genders.

H0: there might or might not be a correlation between the personality types and colour preferences of the subjects.

H1: the extroverts will prefer brighter shades while the introverts will go for duller shades.

Personality

Gordon W. Allport defines personality as "a dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment."

In this definition, Allport tries to explain the dynamic nature and organizational aspects of personality and emphasizes on its role in the way an individual adjusts with his environment or surroundings. However this definition is not complete in the sense that it holds personality as an aspect within the individual and not as being integrated with it.

Personality, as defined by Eysenck, is "the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment." This definition is more or less complete as it tries to provide a physiological base to personality and hence attempts to give a balanced consideration to the role of both nature and nurture in shaping one's personality. This definition also attempts to make personality somewhat measurable and assessable, hence giving it a scientific base.

Hence it can be said that personality is "a blend of constantly evolving and changing pattern of one's unique behavior, emerged as a result of one's interactions with one's environment and directed towards some specific ends."

Colours and Colour Preference

Colour is a sensation (of sight) produced as a result of electromagnetic waves hitting the retina of the eye. These waves are the ones that are reflected by various objects in the environment. Colour preference on the other hand can be defined as the tendency of an individual or a group to favour a particular colour or colours over others.

A Psychometric test includes a wide array of evaluation tools that measure one's knowledge, abilities and personality. It is a measurement instrument that consists of a sample of behavior obtained under standardized conditions and evaluated using established scoring rules.

Correlation can be defined as a mutual and reciprocal relationship between two or more variables.

A lot of studies have been conducted using the two variables that are a part of this study.

K. Warner Schaie, West Virginia University, in 1960, studied the relation between color and personality. Models were used which conceptualize response to colour as a means for studying emotional behavior. Instruments used were Rorschach test (to assess personality traits) and luscher test (to assess colour preferences) for his research. It was noticed that a particular personality type people respond to or prefer some particular colour.

A paper on Colour and Personality, using Strong's Interest inventory and Cattell's 16 PF Questionnaire was presented at Rense Lange, Sigmund Testing, Dallas, TX, by Jason Rentfrow,

University of Cambridge, UK. The researcher here studied whether the preferences of colour one had were in any way affected by the kind of personality trait he possessed. He made use of the following three instruments:

- Strong's Interest Inventory- for colour preference
- Cattell's 16 PF- for personality.
- Dewey Colour System Test was also used.

The conclusions of the research clearly reinforce the notion that the colour preferences are valid indicators of an individual's personality traits.

Lauren Hartsfield conducted a research on the effect of colour on personality traits in 2008, to be presented at Robert Morris University, Moon Township, PA. He used Big Five Personality Test on one of two different colours of paper (red or blue). Although it was expected that red would increase extraversion scores and blue would decrease them, results showed no differences between the groups.

METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of this study the target audience selected was between the age group of 18-25. A sample of 80 college students (39 females and 41 males) was randomly chosen from Ahmedabad city. The researchers used two questionnaires namely, Eysenks personality test and a self prepared colour bar: colour preference questionnaire. Each subject was required to fill both these questionnaires one after the other.

Eysenks personality test, developed by Hans Eysenk and his wife Sybil Eysenk, is a questionnaire devised to assess the personality traits of a person. The reliability of the questionnaire was found to be 0.7. This questionnaire measured personality on three dimensions, which were extraversion, psychotism and neuroticism. The researcher focused on only one dimension in this study which was extraversion. This questionnaire consisted of 36 questions and had a scale ranging from very inaccurate to very accurate. The subject was required to read the question and choose the most appropriate option. The other questionnaire used was a self prepared questionnaire that measures the colour preferences of the subjects. This questionnaire consisted of a colour bar showing 5 shades of 8 colours. The subject was required to rank the shade of each colour from 1 to 5 according to his preference. This questionnaire had negative scoring which means that when a subject gives 1st rank to a particular shade then that shade gets a score of 5. There was no time limit for both the questionnaires.

After the data was collected the sample was divided into 4 groups, based on the gender and personality type of the subjects. Group 1: introvert females group 2: introvert males, group 3: extrovert females, group 4: extrovert males. Then the mean, standard deviation and correlation was calculated. The mean and S.D. was calculated for the scores of shades of all the colours for all the groups and the correlation was calculated using the extraversion scores and the scores for the most preferred colour for each participant.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

DATA TABLE:

TABLE NO.1

GROUPS	MEAN	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT	STANDARD DEVIATION
INTROVERT(F)	436.4	-0.1	6.52
INTROVERT(M)	529.2	-0.3	5.74
EXTROVERT(F)	504	0.1	5.48
EXTROVERT(M)	453.4	0.5	6.93

Discussions: Referring to the above data table we can see that no significant difference was found in the results, except for extrovert males' correlation coefficient.

CONCLUSION

From this study we can conclude that the hypothesis made by the researcher was rejected since no significant correlation was found between the personality type of the subject and his colour preference, but it was also seen that this age group overall prefers brighter colours as compared to dull shades. The sample group consists of college going students who are highly affected by the latest trends of fashion. Since bright colours are in fashion presently we can probably conclude by saying that colour preferences of the people does not depend entirely on the personality type but instead to a great extent depends on the latest trends of fashion.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

There were various limitations found to this study. Firstly, colour preference is subjective and can change easily. Secondly, introversion and extroversion is very situational and has a very thin line between them. Many times the answers given by the subjects for the personality test are highly dependent on the moods of the subject at that particular time. Also people tend to give answers which are socially accepted (self serving bias) instead of their actual answers which hinders the study. The sample size taken for this study was 80. This probably could have been a limitation for our study since the sample size was too small to represent the population.

APPENDIX

EYSENCK'S PERSONALITY INVENTORY

NAME:

AGE:

SEX:

INSTRUCTIONS: Given below is an online version of Eysenck's Personality Inventory. Read the given statements carefully and select one option that is most appropriate in your case, on a general basis. The inventory is based on careful introspection and your knowledge about self. You are hence required to answer as truthfully as possible.

1) I enjoy meeting new people.

Very
Inaccurate ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Very
Accurate

2) I frequently worry.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

3) I am at ease around others.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

4) I respect authority.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

5) I know how to get people to have fun.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

6) I frequently feel frustrated.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

7) I would rather play by the rules.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

8) I enjoy social gatherings.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

9) I make friends easily.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

10) I have no trouble approaching people.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

11) I can be egocentric.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

12) I can be unsympathetic.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

13) I tend to be nervous.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

14) I like to be intimidating.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

15) I am very energetic.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

16) I often feel lonely.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

17) I like being in high energy environments.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

18) I tend to be more comfortable with the known than the unknown.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

19) I sometimes feel extremely sad for no reason.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

20) I am hypersensitive.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

21) I suffer from anxiety.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

22) I am very talkative.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

23) I am outgoing.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

24) Being in debt would not worry me.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

25) I am quiet around others.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

26) I enjoy being part of a group.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

27) I think people are overly cautious.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

28) I behave properly.

Very
Inaccurate  Very
Accurate

29) I tend to brood on past mistakes.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

30) I am very tense.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

31) I prefer to go my own way than live by the rules.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

32) I fear for the worst.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

33) I frequently feel guilty.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

34) I try not to be rude to people.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

35) I am very moody.

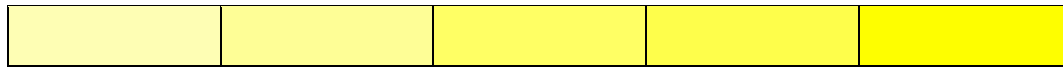
Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

36) I would like other people to be afraid of me.

Very Inaccurate  Very Accurate

COLOUR BAR – COLOUR PREFERENCE TEST

YELLOW



RED



BLUE



GREEN



PURPLE



ORANGE



GREY 1



GREY 2



COLOUR BAR- COLOUR PREFERENCE TEST

(Scoring Grid)

INSTRUCTIONS: The following is the scoring grid of the Colour Bar- Colour Preference Test. You are required to refer to the Shade Card and fill in the Scoring Grid according to your preference of the shades of the given colour. To score, you may use the numbers 1,2,3,4,5 ; where 1 refers to the most preferred and 5 refers to the least preferred.

Note: please try to fill the grid by putting in 1 and 5 first, followed by the others.

YELLOW					
RED					
BLUE					
GREEN					
PURPLE					
ORANGE					

GREY 1					
GREY 2					

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Personality and emotional maturity of depressive and obsessive compulsive disorders

Dr. Thiyam Kiran Singh*, Akanksha Sharma**

ABSTRACT

In this study random sampling technique was used in which a sample of 30 Depressive patients and 30 Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) patients were collected with the age range of 18 to 40 years. The participants were administered Dimensional Personality Inventory developed by Bhargav (1997) and Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Singh and Bhargave (1991). The purpose of the study is to compare Depressive and OCD patients on Personality Inventory Test and Emotional Maturity Scale to find out any significant difference in overall personality and its various dimensions similarly as well as overall Emotional Maturity and its various dimensions. The result found no significant in overall personality and its dimensions. Likewise, the result also found no significant difference in overall Emotional maturity but there is significant difference under the dimensions of Emotional Progression and Independence which gives the impression that depressive patients are more emotionally progressed or improved but less independent comparing with O.C.D. patients.

Key words: - Depression, Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder, Personality, Emotional Maturity.

As emotions do play central role in the life of an individual, one is expected to have higher emotional maturity in order to lead an effective life. It is also true that our behaviour is constantly influenced by the emotional maturity level that we possess. Emotional maturity allows handling life's ups and downs without over reacting. Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health both intra-physically and intrapersonally. However, when emotions become intense and unremitting and are not tied to a particular stimulus, they are called moods and extreme and persistent moods can lead to depression. Emotions exert an incredibly powerful force on human behavior. Strong emotions can cause you to take actions you might not normally perform or avoid situations that you generally enjoy. Why exactly do we have emotions? What causes us to have these feelings? Researchers, philosophers and psychologists have proposed a number of different theories to explain the how and why behind human emotions. In psychology, emotion is often defined as a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence thought and behavior. Emotionality is associated with a range of psychological phenomena including temperament, personality, mood and motivation. According to author David G. Meyers, human emotion involves "Physiological arousal, expressive behaviors and conscious experience."

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The word "emotion" comes from dates back to 1579 when it was adapted from the French word *émouvoir*, which means "to stir up". In psychology there are three main reasons to study emotion: 1. To understand emotion. 2. To understand expression of emotion. 3. To use methods of control emotion. In world today, to know and to measure Intelligence Quotient (IQ) is very famous. Likewise, after study of Emotional Quotient (EQ) by Daniel Goldman, EQ is also becomes famous (Gopani, 2013). The present study has attempted to compare personality and emotional maturity of Depressive and Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) patients so as to gain knowledge about personality and emotional maturity and could implement in helping them in treatment once we get idea about the difference of personality and emotional maturity between Depressive patients and OCD patients using positive therapy as Menon (2011) mentioned that positive therapy have been successfully conducted in managing Stress, Depression, Anxiety and Anger.

OBJECTIVES:

1. To compare the Depressive and obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD) patients on personality and its various dimensions i.e. activity-passivity, enthusiastic-non enthusiastic, assertive-submissive, suspicious-trusting, depressive-non depressive and emotional instability-emotional stability.
2. To compare the depressive and obsessive compulsive disorder patients on emotional maturity and its various dimensions i.e. emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment, personality integration and independence.

HYPOTHESIS:

1. There will be significant difference in comparison between Depressive and OCD patients on Dimensional Personality Inventory (DPI).
2. There will be significant difference in comparison between Depressive and OCD patients on Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS).

DEPRESSIVE PATIENT:

Inclusion Criteria:

1. Age range between 18 to 40 years.
2. Those fulfilled diagnostic criteria of Depression according to ICD-10.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Age below 18 and above 40 years.
2. Those can't cooperate for study.

Obsessive and Compulsive Disorder (OCD) Patients:

Inclusion Criteria:

1. Age range between 18 to 40 years.
2. Those fulfilled diagnostic criteria of Depression according to ICD-10.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Age below 18 and above 40 years.
2. Those can't cooperate for study.

METHODOLOGY:

Sample: - The sample consisted of 60 patients. The age varies from 18 to 40 years. All sixty patients (Depressive patients= 30 and OCD patients=30) were draw using the technique of simple random sampling.

TOOLS USED:

1. Dimensional Personality Inventory (DPI):

This scale was developed by Bhargav (1997) which consisted of 60 statements in Hindi and English. It measures six personality dimensions each dimension is measured by 10 items through three response alternatives i.e. Yes, Undecided and No and dimensions are activity-passivity trait, enthusiastic-non enthusiastic trait, assertive-submissive, suspicious-trusting, depressive-non depressive and emotional instability- emotional stability. The reliability of DPI is determined by the test-retest and split half method and was found to be lowest 0.39 and highest 0.63 which ensures the high reliability. It also yields satisfactory validity. DPI was correlated with the same personality traits of English version of Sen et al. (2005) personality trait inventory (PTI) on a sample of 80 and obtained validity coefficients were 0.66 and 0.84.

2. Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS):

Emotional Maturity Scale was developed by Singh and Bhargava (1991). This scale measures a list of five broad factors of Emotional Immaturity - Emotional Unstability, Emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence. It is a self-reporting five point scale. Items of the scale are in question form demanding information for each in any of the 5 options: Always, Mostly, Uncertain, Usually, Never. The items were scored as 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Therefore, the higher the score on the scale leads greater the degree of emotional immaturity and vice versa. The scale has total 48 items. There are 10 items per factor except the fifth factor which has 8 items. The highest possible score for the first 4 areas are 50 and the lowest is 10 while for the fifth factor the highest score is 40 and lowest is 8.(For all the first 4 factors the extremely unstable range from 10-20 (for 5th factor-8-16), moderately unstable from 21-30 (17-24), unstable from 31-40 (25-32), stable from 41-50(33-40). Reliability of the scale was determined by test retest reliability which was 0.75 and internal consistency for various factors ranged from .42-.86. The scale was validated against external criteria, i.e. .the area of the adjustment inventory for college students (Sinha and Singh, 1995).

Procedure:

The total samples of 60 were collected out of which 30 were Depressive patients and 30 were OCD patients. These samples were collected using simple random sampling method from those patients who were cooperative and ready to give consent for study. These samples were taken from Mental Hospital Bareilly. All patients who are included in study were administered Dimensional Personality Inventory and Emotional Maturity Scale to assess their personality and emotional maturity of their life. All the participants were given consent form to read before participation in the study.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

Statistical analyses were done with the help of statistical methods of Mean, Standard Deviation and t- test.

RESULTS:

Table-1 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on personality Inventory. The result found no significance difference in comparison between depressive and O.C.D. patients on personality inventory. Table-2 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on various dimensions of personality. The result found no significance difference in all the dimensions of personality inventory between depressive and O.C.D. patients. Table-3 showing the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on overall emotional maturity Scale. The result found no significance difference in overall emotional intelligence between depressive and O.C.D. patients. Table-4 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on various dimensions of emotional maturity scale. The result found significant difference under the dimensions of emotional progression ($t=2.15^*$, $P < 0.05$) and independence ($t=3.39^*$, $P < 0.05$) which indicates depressive patients are more emotional progressed and less independent comparing with O.C.D. patients.

DISCUSSION:

The study found Depressive patients are more emotionally progressed (emotionally improve fast) comparatively than OCD patients. This may be because depressive Patients need to overcome their depression quickly so as to stop further negative consequences like - self harming, committing suicide, loss of confidence, feeling worst etc. Supportively, in earlier study Acharyya et al. (2012) found that female sexual workers are depress and in return becomes lonely comparatively other women of different professions. Furthermore, female sexual workers who are depress and lonely were less likely to compel their customer to use condom than those female sexual workers who are not depress and lonely. Srividya and Venkatammal (2012) mentioned in their study that Depression refers to feeling of despair and hopelessness, negative shifts in perception and decrease interest in activities that once provided pleasure. Bhattacharjee (2013) enlighten that major depression is a well documented risk factor for suicide in cancer patients as well as in the general population.

The study also acknowledges that Depressive patients are emotionally less independent comparatively than OCD patients. This may be because depressive patients feel low mood, poor social support, low self-esteem and dissatisfaction with intimate relationships so in turn they become less independent emotionally. Supportively, Srivastava (2011) proclaim in his study that Depression is an emotional illness with variable low mood that occasionally become positive and excited or cheerful. Sharma et al. (2012) found in their study that Depress patients in elderly have poor perception of social support than to those of normal group of elders. Hogg et al. (1994) found that Depress patients have low self-esteem and become dependent on others for day today activities and emotional support. Depress patients fail to establish autonomous stances during communication and dissatisfaction with intimate relationships (Kobak & Gillies, 1995).

CONCLUSION:

The study concluded that Depressive and OCD patients did not differ significantly on personality and its various dimensions - Activity-Passivity, Enthusiastic-Non enthusiastic, Assertive-Submissive, Suspicious-Trusting, Depressive-Non depressive and Emotional instability- Emotional stability. They were found to be alike in respect of their personality. Whereas Depressive patients were found to have obtained higher mean scores on Emotional

progression (emotionally improve fast) dimension of emotional maturity but the OCD patients had higher scores on Independence dimension of the emotional maturity indicates depressive patients are more emotional progressed and less independent comparing with O.C.D. patients.

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Tables:

Table-1 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on personality Inventory.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test
Depressive Patients	30	69.59	6.18	0.23
Obsessive Compulsive Disorder Patients	30	69.82	10.08	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table-2 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on various dimensions of personality inventory.

Dimensions of Personality	Group	Mean	S.D	t-test
Activity-passivity	Depression	11.09	2.37	0.35
	OCD	10.81	3.63	
enthusiastic-non enthusiastic	Depression	7.70	3.03	0.73
	OCD	8.30	3.24	
assertive-submissive	Depression	10.99	2.61	1.33
	OCD	11.91	2.67	
suspicious-trusting	Depression	11.49	2.46	1.76
	OCD	12.69	2.76	
depressive-non depressive	Depression	13.41	2.01	1.66
	OCD	12.40	2.61	
emotional instability-emotional stability	Depression	15.49	3.00	0.25
	OCD	13.59	2.97	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table-3 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on overall emotional maturity Scale.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-ratio
Depressive Patients	30	155.50	18.39	1.24
Obsessive Compulsive Disorder Patients	30	161.91	21.21	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table-4 shows the comparison of depressive and O.C.D patients on various dimensions of emotional maturity scale.

Dimensions of emotional maturity	Group	Mean	S.D.	t-test
Emotional Maturity	Depression	35.41	3.99	0.18
	OCD	35.02	4.95	
Emotional Progression	Depression	35.61	4.29	2.15*
	OCD	33.01	4.98	
Social Adjustment	Depression	28.19	7.95	1.20
	OCD	30.41	6.15	
Personality Integration	Depression	35.21	4.44	0.85
	OCD	37.19	5.13	
Independence	Depression	22.70	4.53	3.39*
	OCD	26.90	4.98	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Emotional intelligence and self esteem of alcohol and cannabis dependents

Dr. Thiyam Kiran Singh*, Shivi Saxena**

ABSTRACT

A total of 120 were collected out of which 60 were alcohol dependents and 60 were cannabis dependents that were diagnosed based on ICD-10 were selected from SMS Psychiatric Centre, Jaipur and other Psychiatric Centre of Jaipur. The purpose of this study is to find out emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol Dependents and Cannabis Dependents. Assessment was done using Severity of Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire of Edwards (1978), Cannabis Use Disorder Identification Test (Adamson & Sellman, 2003), Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test (Roqan, 1971) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). To find out severity of alcohol dependence, cannabis dependence, emotional intelligence and self esteem of alcohol dependents & cannabis dependents. The result find alcohol dependents are poor in emotional intelligence and self esteem in comparing with cannabis dependents. The severity of alcohol dependence is negatively correlated with emotional intelligence and self esteem which tells us that with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol Dependents were reduced. Similarly the severity of cannabis dependence is negatively correlated with emotional intelligence which signifies with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence of cannabis dependents were reduced but positively correlated with self esteem which acknowledge us that with the increase in severity of dependence the self esteem of cannabis dependents were increased.

Keywords: Alcohol Dependents, Cannabis Dependents, Emotional Intelligence, Self Esteem.

INTRODUCTION:

Alcohol is the most commonly used recreational drug globally and its consumption, often in large volume in India. Many families in India become ruined because of drinking habit in one or other family members. Many family members do not know how to deal with such kind of dependents members. They think it is a very huge burden on them, many times they feel as if their life becomes hell or curse because of dependents members. Many spouses refuse to settle-

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with Alcohol Dependents for longer span of life because of unbearable stresses of life being integrated with them so in return they separated or divorce them from their life and start living a new life. Singh and Raju (2012) found out that the overall the quality of life of Alcohol Dependents were poor. They have poor Physical, Psychological, Independence, Social, Environment and Spiritual domains. They also found out that most of the spouses of Alcohol dependents were not satisfied in their marital life towards husband. Most Alcohol Dependents were having severe depression because of unable to control over their drinking, life become unmanageable, lost prestige and social status not only that many of them also have severe level of organic brain dysfunction (Singh & Shukla, 2012). In some low income groups spouses become sexual worker in order to earn some income and feed their children in the family. Alcohol dependents have lots of Psycho-social problems. Psychological problems like drinking in order to reduce stress, tension, anxiety, escaping from problem, blaming others, showing more aggression, preoccupation of thoughts etc. and social problems like lost of Job, breakdown of relationships, financial burden, divorce etc.. Likewise, Cannabis is also the most commonly used illicit drug in India and a significant proportion of users have symptoms of dependence. In addition, there are a number of adverse consequences of use, including an association with psychotic disorders. The present study has attempted to find out emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents and also to compare Emotional Intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents so as to gain knowledge about emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents and could implement in helping them in treatment once we get idea about the difference about emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents as Meddock and Babbs (2006) stated there is a need for effective treatment of cannabis misuse and Alcohol Dependents.

METHODOLOGY:

Objectives of the study:

1. To find out emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents.
2. To compare Emotional Intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis dependents.

Hypotheses of the study:

1. There will be significant difference in emotional intelligence in comparison between alcohol dependents and cannabis dependents.
2. There will be significant difference in self esteem in comparison between alcohol dependents and cannabis dependents.

Sample Size:

The sample size consists of 120 samples out of which 60 are alcohol dependents and 60 are cannabis dependents.

Alcohol Dependents:**Inclusion Criteria:**

1. Those who fulfill the criteria of Alcohol Dependents according to ICD 10.
2. Male Alcohol Dependents between the age range of 30 to 40 years.
3. Those who do not have co-morbid (Axis –IV, DSM) psychiatric Diagnosis.
4. Those who can give consent for study

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Those who do not fulfill the criteria of Alcohol Dependents According to ICD 10.
2. Female Alcohol Dependents
3. Social or Occasional drinkers
4. Those who cannot give consent for study

Cannabis Dependents:**Inclusion Criteria:**

1. Those who fulfill the criteria of Cannabis Dependents according to ICD 10.
2. Male Cannabis Dependents from the age of 30 to 40 years.
3. Those who do not co-morbid (Axis –IV, DSM) psychiatric Diagnosis.
4. Those who can give consent for study.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Those who do not fulfill the criteria of Cannabis Dependents According to ICD 10.
2. Female Cannabis Dependents.
3. Social or Occasional user.
4. Those who cannot give consent for study.

Tools Used:

1. Severity of Alcohol Dependent Questionnaire (SADQ)

The SADQ is a short, easy-to-complete, self-administered, 20-item questionnaire designed to measure severity of dependence on alcohol as formulated by Edwards & Gross (1976) and Edwards (1978). There are five subscales with four items in each: Physical Withdrawal, Affective Withdrawal, Withdrawal Relief Drinking, Alcohol Consumption, and Rapidity of Reinstatement. Each item is scored on a 4-point scale, ranging from “Almost Never” to “Nearly Always,” resulting in a corresponding score of 0 to 3. Thus the total maximum score possible is 60 and the minimum is 0. The original SADQ as first described in 1979 and further refined in 1983 is designed purely for use with populations of problem drinkers attending treatment facilities of various kinds. The SADQ has been widely used with such groups, and norms exist for inpatient treatment units, outpatient clinics, community-based services, and controlled drinking program attenders, to name but a few. Test retest reliability of SADQ is 0.85.

2. Cannabis Use Disorder Identification Test (CUDIT)

The Cannabis Use Disorders Identification Test (Adamson & Sellman, 2003) was used to assess cannabis use behavior. The CUDIT is a ten item questionnaire designed to screen for evidence of hazardous or harmful cannabis use and covers the domains of cannabis consumption, cannabis smoking behavior and cannabis related problems. Participants are required to read a statement and circle the answer which corresponds to their pattern of use. The CUDIT has a possible range of zero and forty. Each question is scored from 0 to 4, with an example item being “How often were you stoned for six or more hours. The CUDIT demonstrates adequate reliability (Adamson & Sellman, 2003).

3. Roqan Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT)

This test was developed by Roqan (1971). This test has 30 items, self administered test and cultural free. The reliability and validity of the test is 0.7 and 0.83 indicating highly reliable and valid. This test is used for adolescents.

4. Rosenberg Self Esteem scale (RSES)

This scale has 10-item designed by Rosenberg (1965) assesses an individual's feelings of self-worth when the individual compares himself or herself to other people. The scale is an attempt to achieve a one-dimensional measure of global self esteem. It was designed to represent a continuum of self worth, with statements that are endorsed by individuals with low self-esteem to statements that are endorsed only by persons with high self-esteem. Criterion Validity: .55, Construct Validity: Correlated -.64 with anxiety, -.54 with depression, and -.43 with anomie.

PROCEDURE:

A total sample of 120 i.e. 60 Alcohol Dependents and 60 Cannabis Dependents that fulfilled ICD-10 criteria were collected from SMS Psychiatric Centre, Jaipur and other Psychiatric Centre in Jaipur. Consents were taken from both alcohol dependents and cannabis dependents about

research. Information was gathered about alcohol dependents and cannabis dependents using Severity of Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire (SADQ), Cannabis Use Disorder Identification Test (CUDIT). Both alcohol dependents and cannabis dependents were administered Roqan Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) to find out level of emotional intelligence and self esteem.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

The statistical methods of: t- test, Pearson's product movement's coefficient of correlation and chi square were used with the help of statistical software namely statistical package of social sciences (SPSS 17.0).

RESULTS:

Table 1 shows comparison of Alcohol Dependents and Cannabis Dependents on Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT) and the result found significant difference in comparison of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis Dependents in Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test ($X^2 = 22.63$, $P < 0.01$) which indicates Alcohol Dependents are lower emotional intelligence compare to Cannabis Dependents. Table 2 shows comparison of Alcohol Dependents and Cannabis Dependents on Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) and the result found significant difference in comparison of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis Dependents in Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale. ($X^2 = 7.658$, $P < 0.01$) indicating Alcohol Dependents are poor in self esteem than Cannabis Dependents. Table 3 shows correlation of Severity Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire (SADQ) and Raqon emotional intelligence (REIT) of Alcohol Dependents and the result found negative correlation (-.056) which tells us that with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence of Alcohol Dependents were reduced. Table 4 shows correlation of Severity Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire (SADQ) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) of Alcohol Dependents and the result proclaim negative correlation (-.093) which tells us that with the increase in severity of dependents the self esteem of Alcohol Dependents were reduced. Table 5 shows correlation of Cannabis Use Dependents Identification Test (CUDIT) and Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT) of Cannabis Dependents and the rest found negative correlation (-0.083) which signifies with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence of cannabis dependents were reduced. Table 6 shows correlation of Cannabis Use Dependents Identification Test (CUDIT) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) of Cannabis Dependents and the result enlightened positive correlation (.099) which acknowledges us that with the increase in severity of dependence the self esteem of cannabis dependents were increased.

Discussion:

The study found significant difference in comparison of Alcohol dependents and Cannabis Dependents in Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test and as well as Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale which indicates Alcohol Dependents have lower emotional intelligence and self esteem compare to Cannabis Dependents. The reason may be because alcohol dependents due to

their prolong habit of drinking they lost confidence, self esteem and feel worthless of life. Supportively, DeHart et al (2009) examined the relations among implicit self-esteem, interpersonal interactions and alcohol consumption in college students. Multilevel analyses revealed that students with low implicit self-esteem drank more on days when they experienced more negative interpersonal interactions. These findings suggest that people with low implicit self-esteem may unintentionally drink as a way to regulate unfulfilled needs for acceptance. Reay (2006) found in his study that drug user scored lower on the questionnaire which had been employed for the assessment of Emotional Intelligence. Likewise, Walant (1995) posits that persons vulnerable to alcohol and drug abuse have suffered self esteem neglect of their attachment needs and compensate by artificially inducing merger states through their use of drugs and alcohol.

This study found, with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol Dependents were reduced. Similarly, even for Cannabis Dependents with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence of cannabis dependents were reduced. This may be because they lost self confidence, increase cognitive dysfunctions and also poor in judgment. Supportively, Goleman (1995) ascertain that low Emotional Intelligence (EI) was a major factor in drug and alcohol addiction. This study found that EI scores were significantly related to addiction levels but this was fully mediated by the psychological distress variable. Zukauskas, et al. (2001) found alcohol and cannabis abuses leads to stress which plays an important role in human life. Under normal condition it has a favourable influence. However constant pathological stress can be harmful. It also leads to loss of self confidence and poor judgment.

Whereas the in the case of cannabis dependents study found, with the increase in severity of dependence the self esteem of cannabis dependents were increased. This may be because they have poor judgment, attention, decision making and their cognitive thinking capacity. Supportively, West and Sweeting (1997) found that 15 year olds with higher self-esteem were more likely to take drugs like cannabis and have had sexual experiences. Medina et al. (2009) found that increase volume in the prefrontal cortex was associated with poorer executive functioning among cannabis users. Batalla et al. (2013) found cannabis use has been associated with a range of acute and chronic mental health problems such as neuro-cognitive alterations, anxiety, depression as well as increase risk of psychotic symptoms and disorders, the severity of these effects being dependent on frequency of use, age of onset and genetic vulnerability. Continuous use of cannabis leads to brain lesion at prefrontal cortex, cingulated cortex, basal ganglia, medial temporal areas etc. which leads to poor judgment, decision making, attention, psychomotor speed and memory.

CONCLUSION:

From this study it can be concluded that alcohol dependents are poor in emotional intelligence and self esteem in comparing with cannabis dependents. The severity of alcohol dependence is negatively correlated with emotional intelligence and self esteem which tells us that with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence and self esteem of Alcohol Dependents were reduced. Similarly, the severity of cannabis dependence is negatively correlated with emotional intelligence which signifies with the increase in severity of dependence the emotional intelligence of cannabis dependents were reduced but positively correlated with self esteem which acknowledge us that with the increase in severity of dependence the self esteem of cannabis dependents were increased.

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Tables:

Table 1: Comparison of Alcohol Dependents and Cannabis Dependents on Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT)

Variable	Group	Alcohol Dependents		Cannabis Dependents		X ²
REIT		N	%	N	%	22.63**
	Low	41	68.3	15	25.0	
	Normal	19	31.7	45	75.0	
Total		60	100	60	100	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table 2: Comparison of Alcohol Dependents and Cannabis Dependents on Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES)

Variable	Group	Alcohol Dependents		Cannabis Dependents		X ²
RES		N	%	N	%	7.685**
	Low	21	35.0	8	13.3	
	Normal	39	65.0	52	86.7	
Total		60	100	60	100	

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table 3: Correlation of Severity Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire (SADQ) and Raqon emotional intelligence (REIT) of Alcohol Dependents

Group	SADQ				R
REIT	Variable	Mild	Moderate	Severe	-0.056
	Low	4	2	35	
		6.7%	3.3%	71.4%	
	Normal	1	4	14	
		1.7%	6.7%	23.3%	
Total		5	6	49	60
		8.3%	10.0%	81.7%	100%

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table 4: Correlation of Severity Alcohol Dependents Questionnaire (SADQ) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) of Alcohol Dependents

Group	SADQ				R
RES	Variable	Mild	Moderate	Severe	-.093
	Low	1	2	18	
		1.70%	3.3%	30.0%	
	Normal	4	4	31	
		6.7%	6.7%	51.7%	
Total		5	6	49	60
		8.3%	10.0%	81.7%	100%

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table 5: Correlation of Cannabis Use Dependents Identification Test (CUDIT) and Raqon Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT) of Cannabis Dependents

Group	CUDIT				R
REIT	Variable	Advisable	Advisable & Counseling	Diagnostic Evaluation & Treatment	-0.083
	Low	0	1	14	
		0.0	1.7	23.3	
	Normal	3	1	41	
		5.0	1.7	68.3	
	Total		3	2	
5			3.3	91.7	100

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Table 6: Correlation of Cannabis Use Dependents Identification Test (CUDIT) and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES) of Cannabis Dependents

Group	CUDIT				R
RSE	Variable	Advisable	Advisable & Counseling	Diagnostic Evaluation & Treatment	
	Low	1	0	7	.099
		1.7%	0.0%	11.7%	
	Normal	2	2	48	
		3.3%	3.3%	80.0%	
	Total		3	2	55
5%			3.3%	91.7%	100%

**** Significant at 0.01 level**

***Significant at 0.05 level**

Effect of Personal Variables of Youths of Rajkot District on Their Adjustment

Mohit M. Pandya* & Dr. D. J. Bhatt**

ABSTRACT

The study was designed to investigate the impact of certain socio personal variables on the youths' Adjustment of Rajkot district. The sample consisted of 240 youths' (120 Male/120 Female) selected randomly from Rajkot district. Revised Adjustment Inventory (RAI) of Dr. Pramodkumar was used. Data were analysis by 'F' test and 't' test. Results revealed that there exists a significant difference between the youths' gender and their Adjustment. No significant difference was found between the youths' Area, Education, Age, Type of family, Family members and Education faculty their Adjustment.

Keywords: Adjustment and youths'

INTRODUCTION:

It is important for young adults to be adjustment. To identify its own internal and external affairs of life. The Adjustment process is continuous. Environment associated with the adjustment process. Youth live in concert with each Other to adjust. Youths' meaning 18 to 25 age people. How does it interact with other behaviors that are watching it? Here are some of the problems that youth born adjustment is not changed properly. "Adjustment refers to Change in Ourselves and our environment to satisfy our needs and to meet with our demands as well as to establish satisfactory Relation with others" (Eastward Atwater). Adjustment is a continuous process that tends to bring out more or less changing attitudes throughout the individual's life. Some adjustment connotes happiness and freedom from personal problems. While for others, it

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means an unhappy conformity to group demands and expectations. Adjustment is a lifelong process and can be defined as a person's interaction with his environment. It is a process in which an individual learns certain ways of behavior through which he enters a relationship of harmony or equilibrium with his environment. He thereby tries to lead a life acceptable to society (Mohan and Singh, 1989).

Kim, Sooyeon; Brody, Gene H. (2005) Longitudinal Pathways to Psychological Adjustment among Black Youth Living in Single-Parent Households. A 5-wave model linking family and maternal functioning to youth psychological adjustment was tested with 139 single-mother-headed African American families with young adolescents (mean age = 11 years at recruitment) living in the rural South. Structural equation modeling indicated that an accumulation of family risk factors at Wave 1 was linked with maternal psychological functioning at Wave 2, which forecast competence-promoting parenting practices at Wave 3. These parenting practices indirectly forecast youth externalizing and internalizing behaviors 2 years later at Wave 5, through youth self-regulation at Wave 4. The hypothesized model was retested, controlling for Wave 1 youth externalizing and internalizing behaviors. All paths remained significant, indicating that the model accounted for change in youth psychological adjustment across 4 years.

Cam bell and mikela (2000) states that the college in the same state of adjusting its focus on youth. These Features were tested. Elizabeth L. Paul. (2011) A study has shown that youth friendship relations are weak. 70 Students Chose for him and look at the result of a relative lack of pre-college social relations in which the loneliness of anomaly associated with. So with the other adjustment is not reached quickly. Lucy R. Bat (2007) the purpose of the study was that young children's concentration and reliability as well as the school they know with the adjustment. The conclusion to be learned from them that the boys do not consider adjustment of loneliness. The girls did not consider further Adjustment.

R.L. Bharsakhale (2013) A study of marriage attitude and adjustment among art and science faculty students by employing a sample of 140 subjects in which 70 subjects were Arts faculty were Arts faculty (35 Male and 35 Female) and 70 subjects were Science faculty (35 Male and 35 Female) with age ranging from 21 to 24 years located From Aurangabad District were selected. The Marriage Attitude Scale. This scale was developed and standardized by Pramod Kumar and An Adjustment Inventory (for school and College pupils).This scale was

developed and standardized by Dr.Penni Jain. A factorial design was used; since there were two independent variables i.e. Faculty and Gender. A 2x2 factorial design was used to analyzing the data. It was found that the Science faculty students have positive marriage attitude from the arts faculty students and Science faculty students have good adjustment than arts faculty students.

METHOD

Objective

The main aim of this study was to investigate the impact of the personal variables of Rajkot district youths' on their Adjustment.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between Adjustment of male and female Rajkot district youths'.
2. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and education of Rajkot district youths'.
3. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and area of Rajkot district youths'.
4. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and age of Rajkot district youths'.
5. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and types of family of Rajkot district youths'.
6. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and family members of Rajkot district youths'.
7. There is no significant difference between Adjustment and Educational Faculty of Rajkot district youths'.

Samples

The sample size was 240 youths', comprising of 120 Male and 120 Female youths' from Rajkot district. All were aged between 18 to 25 years. The collected information can be managed carefully and more accurately.

Tools

Adjustment Questionnaire: it was Revised Adjustment Inventory (RAI) of Dr. Pramodkumar (1997), was used to measure Adjustment. The questionnaire contains 40 items with True, and False response alternative. The maximum possible score is one 40 and minimum is 0. High score indicates high level of Adjustment. The test – retest reliability coefficient is 0.93 and validity is high.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table: 1 Analysis of variance based on adjustment of youths' of Rajkot district with respect to Gender, Education and Area

Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Sum of Square	F
A (Gender)	429.32	1	429.32	13.28*
B (Education)	57.02	1	57.02	1.76NS
C(Area)	55.09	1	55.09	1.70NS
A x B	545.36	1	545.36	16.87*
A x C	484.62	1	484.62	14.99*
B x C	113.96	1	113.96	3.52NS
A x B x C	604.00	1	604.00	18.69*
Between	2289.37			
Within error		232		
Total		239		

NS = Not Significant, * $P < 0.01$

According to table No. 1 it is observed that 'F' value of Adjustment of male and female Rajkot district youths' is 13.28 which exhibit significant difference even at a level of 0.01. From these results it can be concluded that male and female Rajkot district youths' differ as far as their Adjustment is concerned. This result supports the results obtained by R.L. Bharsakhale (2013). Therefore refusing null hypothesis it can be said that gender affects ones Adjustment. It is observed from table No.1 that 'F' value of Adjustment amongst level of education of youths' is 1.76 which does not exhibit significant difference even at a level of 0.05. 'F' value of

Adjustment amongst level of area of youths' is 1.70 which do not exhibit significant difference even at a level of 0.05.

Table: 2 t-test comparison based on Adjustment of Rajkot district youths' with respect to Age, Types of family, Family members and Education faculty

Variable	N	SD	Mean	SED	t
<i>Age</i>					
18 to 21	105	6.53	31.17		
22 to 25	135	6.21	29.97	0.81	1.48NS
<i>Types of family</i>					
Joint Family	165	7.89	30.29		
Nuclear Family	75	4.37	30.93	0.78	0.82NS
<i>Family members</i>					
5 to below	126	7.06	30.62		
5 to above	114	6.48	30.35	0.86	0.31NS
<i>Education faculty</i>					
Arts/Commerce	156	6.54	30.32		
Science/All	84	6.06	30.82	0.83	0.60NS

NS = Not Significant

In order to know the difference between groups 't' is calculated after ANOVA in present study, 't' values on shown in table No. 2. From these findings it can be said that 't' value of means obtained for the Adjustment of 18 to 21 age and 22 to 25 age youths' is 1.48 which is not show significant. The 't' value of scores of Adjustment of joint and nuclear family youths' is 0.82 which is also showing not significant. This result supports the results obtained by Sunil S. Jadav (2014). The 't' value of scores of Adjustment of 5 to below and 5 to above family members youths' is 0.31 which does not show significant. The 't' value of scores of Adjustment of arts/commerce and science/all faculty youths' is 0.60. This value is not significant. Following

finding support this result no statistically significant differences in relation to Adjustment between Rajkot district youths’.

CONCLUSION

1. There is significant found between the Adjustment and male and female Rajkot district youths’.
2. There is no significant found between the Adjustment and personal variable education and area Rajkot district youths’.
3. There is no significant found between the Adjustment and age, types of family, family members, education faculty Rajkot district youths’.

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University Entrance Exam Result and Preparatory Class Average Score as Predictors of College Performance

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ABSTRACT:

The purpose of this study was to assess the degree to which university entrance exam result (UEER) and preparatory class average score (PCAS) predict success in college academic performance. The subjects of this study were 484 students. The data were collected from the Registrar Office. Correlation and regression analyses were employed on the data. The results indicated that PCAS and UEER in order as selection instruments appeared to be valid predictors of first year college CGPA and jointly accounted for 33.70 percent of the variation in college performance. Besides, PCAS was found out to be more important than UEER as admission variable. Based on the findings recommendations were forwarded.

KEYWORDS: Criterion Measure, Predictive Validity, Predictors, Selection Criteria

INTRODUCTION:

Background of the Study:

Selection of the most promising students for admission to higher learning institution has been a focus of concern for many years. Many universities and colleges select prospective students of their program based on a set of their own admission requirements. The selection criteria they usually consider include the candidates' potentials to succeed in their studies, the economic need of the society, the spaces available in the program offering institutions and the like (Evans, 2012; Gayle and Jones, 1973). Therefore, the main goal of their admission criteria is to identify students who can successfully complete the study program they are supposed to attend and further address the needs of the society in their future careers as professional. Thus, the value of selection criteria can be assessed by the degree to which such objectives are fulfilled. In fact, such an assessment should not be expected to be done at once, but rather as a continuing and systematic evaluation of the selection techniques (Cronbach, 1990; Eggen and Kauchak, 2001).

Candidates for university or college admission should be typically selected based on several variables, which are used as predictors of their potential to perform successfully in training program (Anastasi, 1997). This is to reveal that when certain variables are used as predictors in selection process a significant relationship should be made between those predictor variables and the criterion variable, which measure the training performance. Accordingly, questions about the adequacy of predictor variables for the purpose they serve are answerable on scientific grounds by evaluating psychometric evidence (Howell, 1997; Hurlburt, 2003). Most of the predictor variables in selection of students for higher institutions are based on cognitive variables such as test scores, high school average score, entrance examination and the like. Predictive validity studies have been conducted in different corner of the world on some of these selection criteria.

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It was found that high school average scores and test scores were the most important predictors of college performance (e.g.; Burton and Ramist, 2001; Kobrin, Patterson, Shaw, Mattern and Barbuti, 2008; Zwick, 2007). Besides, the combination of high school average score and test scores yield somewhat better prediction than either taken alone (Evan, 2012; Geiser and Santelices, 2007; Noble and Sawyer, 2002).

In Ethiopian, ESLCE had long been the sole requirement a high school graduate had to pass to join higher learning institution until the country made a reform on its education system. High school graduating students were required to pass at least five subjects in ESLCE including Math and English as compulsory in order to join college or university. Many studies have been conducted on the predictive ability of ESLCE results. The researchers studied the predictive validity of ESLCE GPA in relation with first year college or university performance. Accordingly, the findings of some of the studies showed a strong correlation between the two variables while those of the others showed a weak correlation between them. For example, studies conducted by Shenkute (1991) and Tamiru (1992) found out that students' ESLCE GPA efficiently predicted their first year university result; whereas, other studies (e.g., Fantu, Zelalem and Belay, 1996; Kassim, 1999) reported that students' ESLCE GPA was found to be a weak predictor of their university performance.

In the year 1994, the Transitional Government of Ethiopia formulated and implemented a new Education and Training Policy (MoE, 1994) and ESLCE was replaced by other examinations on the basis of the new curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education (MoE). According to this policy, national examinations would be administered at grades 10 and 12. These examinations are known as the Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination (EGSECE) and University Entrance Examination (UEE). The EGSECE is administered at the completion of grade 10 while UEE is administered at the completion of grade 12.

The purpose of EGSECE is to certify completion of general secondary education and to select students who qualify for the next level of education. These students then, attend a two-year university preparatory class. Upon the completion of preparatory class, they take the UEE, which serves as an instrument for selection and placement of students for university education in the country (MoE, 2011). Replacing ESLCE, UEE has been in practice since the 2002/03 academic year. There are few researches conducted on the predictive validity of UEE (e.g; Aboma, 2008; Demewoz, Mehadi and Tesfaye, 2005). So far no study have been made that determines the degree of relationships between university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score with first year college academic performance in KCTE. It is this limitation of local studies on important issue that has initiated the investigator to dwell on it.

Statement of the Problem:

In selection and admission process we have to assure whether the criteria we use are valid, whether they (criteria) help us to admit those applicants with the best chance of success, and whether they enable us to eliminate those with the poorest chance of success (Evans, 2012; Gayle and Jones, 1973). Similarly, it is essential to validate the selection criterion (i.e., University Entrance Examination Result) used by the Ministry of Education. No attempt has been done yet, concerning the predictive validity of UEER and PCAS of degree program in KCTE.

The major purpose of this study, therefore, is to assess the degree to which university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score predict success in college academic performance. Based on this purpose, an attempt was made to answer the following basic questions.

1. *Is there a statistically significant relationship between university entrance exam result, preparatory class average score and first year CGPA in college study?*
2. *Do the university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score collectively have significant contribution to the prediction of first year college performance?*
3. *Which one of the predictor variables is more important in explaining the variation in first year CGPA in college study?*

Significance of the Study:

Researchers in the area emphasize the use of the admission criteria that best predict success in college studies. Specifically, Willingham (1974) explained that compared with lower levels of schooling most tertiary programs are costly as well as intellectually demanding. Thus, to minimize human power and resource wastage, it is advisable to use measures that would predict success in a field of study.

Therefore, it is significant to validate the admission criterion used by MoE. Hence, this study would shade some light on how valid the current MoE admission criterion is. From this study the MoE will get some benefit. Specifically, it helps the MoE in understanding the impact of each predictor variable used in this study and makes the necessary arrangements in the weights of the admission variables if necessary. Furthermore, the results of this study may show future directions of research for those researchers who are interested in this area.

Definition of Terms:

According to their usage in this study the following terms are defined in the manner stated below.

1. Criterion measure refers to student's first year CGPA in the college examinations.
2. University entrance examination result refers to the total scores of seven subjects and the maximum possible score is 700 since each subject is scored out of 100.
3. Preparatory class average score refers to the overall average score of the averages of each of grades 11 and 12 scores.
4. Predictive validity refers to the extent to which predictor variables are accurate in predicting or forecasting college performance; the extent of relationship between the predictor variables (i.e., university entrance examination result and preparatory class average score) and criterion measure (i.e., first year college CGPA).
5. Predictor variables refer to the university entrance examination result and preparatory class average score of 2011/12 degree program entrants of KCTE.

List of Abbreviations used in the Study:

1. CGPA - Cumulative Grade Point Average
2. EGSECE - Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination
3. ESLCE - Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination

4. GPA - Grade Point Average
5. HSAS - High School Average Score
6. KCTE - Kotebe College of Teacher Education
7. MoE - Ministry of Education
8. PCAS - Preparatory Class Average Score
9. UEER - University Entrance Examination Result

METHOD OF THE STUDY

This part of the study presents the participants and variables of the study, procedure of data collection and method of data analysis.

Participants of the Study:

The participants of this study were degree regular program students who were admitted to the college in 2011/12 academic year. From a total 497 entrants of that academic year, 484 students (i.e., 97.38%) were included in the study. Only 13 students (i.e., 2.62%) were excluded from the study due to incomplete information. Hence, the total subjects of the study were 484 students (171 males and 313 females).

Variables of the Study:

The variables included in this study were predictor (or independent) variables and criterion measure (or dependent variable). The predictor variables were university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score of 2011/12 regular degree program entrants of KCTE. For statistical purposes, the independent variables were identified by the following symbols: X1 = University Entrance Exam Result and X2 = Preparatory Class Average Score. The criterion measure used was student's first year cumulative grade point average in the college exam. Thus, the dependent variable was a two semester CGPA at KCTE in the 2011/12 academic year.

Procedure of Data Collection:

Permission to have access to the academic performance records of students admitted in 2011/12 was obtained from the college authorities. Then, the researcher collected student's university entrance exam results, preparatory class average scores and first year academic performance in the college (i.e., CGPA) from the Registrar Office of KCTE.

Methods of Data Analysis:

The following statistical methods were used in the analyses of the data. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations were computed to describe the average score and variability of scores. This was followed by analysis of relationships among variables. Using the Pearson product moment method, correlation coefficients were computed to see the relationships among variables. In addition, multiple regression analysis was conducted to see the contribution of predictor variables for the variations on the criterion measure. Following the regression analysis, stepwise regression analysis was employed to identify and select the predictor variable that best explains the variation in the criterion variable. The above analyses were carried out using SPSS version 20. Alpha value 0.05 was used to test significance of the contribution of each predictor variable and of the linear combination of the independent variables to the dependent variable.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This part of the study presents the results of the statistical findings that provide evidence to answer the research questions raised in section one.

Results Obtained Using Descriptive Statistics and Interco relation Matrix

The first research question was concerned with assessing the extent of relationships between university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score to first year CGPA in college study. Accordingly, the results of the study in this regard are summarized in the following table.

[Insert Table1 here]

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of university entrance exam result, preparatory class average score and college first year CGPA. The means of university entrance exam result, preparatory class average score and college CGPA are 314.24, 66.97 and 2.36; their standard deviations are 26.55, 6.25, and 0.55 respectively. This indicates that the mean of students UEER (X1) is below average while the means of their PCAS (X2) and college CGPA (Y) are above average. Concerning the results of standard deviation, there is relatively high variation in their UEER (X1) and PCAS (X2); and a relatively low variation in their college CGPA (Y).

Besides, Table 1 presents the correlation of predictor variables (university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score) with the criterion variable (college CGPA). Higher correlation coefficient was observed between preparatory class average score and college CGPA, $r = 0.563$, $p < 0.01$, which is statistically significant at 0.01 level while statistically significant correlation coefficient was observed between university entrance exam result and college CGPA, $r = 0.214$, $p < 0.01$. On the other hand, the correlation between the predictor variables (i.e., university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score) was $r = 0.129$ which is statistically significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that there is some overlap between the predictor variables. The inspection of the results of intercorrelations among the variables in Table 1 also shows that the directions of the relationships are all positive.

Result of Multiple Regression Analysis

The second research question was concerned with determining the combined contribution of the predictor variables together to the prediction of first year CGPA. For this purpose, a multiple regression analysis was carried out. The results are presented in Table 2.

[Insert Table 2 here]

From Table 2 above, it can be seen that the multiple correlation coefficient (R) obtained is 0.581, which describes the extent to which first year college CGPA is related to university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score. The coefficient of determination (R²) is 0.337, which means the variance accounted for by the predictor variables jointly (or together) is 33.70 percent, $R^2 = 0.337$, $F(2,481) = 122.313$, $p < 0.01$. In other words, when 33.70 percent of the variance in first year college CGPA is explained by the two-predictor variables, the remaining 66.30 percent of the variance in the criterion measure is left unexplained.

Result of Stepwise Regression Analysis
The third research question was concerned with identifying the predictor variable that was more important in explaining the variation in first year CGPA in college study. In order to answer this

question, a stepwise regression analysis was employed. The results are presented in Table 3 below.

[Insert Table 3 here]

As it is indicated in Table 3, preparatory class average score (X2) and university entrance exam result (X1) were entered into the regression model but in different steps. Preparatory class average score was entered into the regression model in the first step. Accordingly, as shown in Table 3, it accounts for 31.70 percent of the variation in first year college CGPA. Thus, preparatory class average score can be said more important predictor variable in explaining the variation in first year college CGPA than university entrance exam result, $R^2 = 0.317$, $F(1, 482) = 223.525$, $p < 0.01$. When university entrance exam result was entered into the regression model in the second step, as it can be seen in Table 3, the prediction of college first year CGPA has improved by 2.0 percent, change in $R^2 = 0.020$, $F(1, 481) = 14.733$, $p < 0.01$.

DISCUSSION

This section of the study presents the discussion of the findings. As far as the first two research questions are concerned, the findings showed significant relationships between the predictor variables and the first year college student's CGPA. As the computation of intercorrelations among variables showed (Table 1), the predictor variables (university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score) are significantly related to the first year college academic performance (CGPA) independently.

In addition to the correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis (Table 2) was worked out and it revealed that the predictor variables together made a significant contribution in the prediction of first year college CGPA, $R = 0.581$, $R^2 = 0.337$, $F(2, 481) = 122.313$, $p < 0.01$. The study indicates that university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score appeared to be important and significant variables in predicting college academic performance. Thus, the selection criterion (i.e. UEE), which was used for university admission in 20011/12 academic year by MoE, along PCAS were found to be significant predictors of first year academic performance so far as students who joined KCTE in that academic year were concerned.

In fact, this study is not the first of its kind since there are some studies that reported similar findings. For example, the study done by Aboma (2008) reported that preparatory school average score, university entrance exam result and aptitude scores appeared to be statistically significant predictors of first semester GPA of the students at Adama University. The result of Aboma's study revealed that the three variables in combination accounted for 17 percent of the variance in students' university first semester GPA.

The result of this study revealed that 33.70 percent of the variance in college first year academic performance was accounted for by variation in university entrance exam result and preparatory class average score. What this means is that about two-thirds of variance, 66.30 percent, remains unexplained.

The possible explanations for such large unexplained variance in first year CGPA may be due to the fact that other factors such as achievement motivation, study habit and specific content background affect performance in college (Eggen and Kauchak, 2001). Besides, researchers

(e.g., Demewoz et al., 2005; Ebel and Frisbie, 1991) indicate that non cognitive variables such as these play an important role in determining students' success in educational activities. Similarly, Geiser and Santelices (2007) state that there are many other factors that affect students' undergraduate experience after admission, such as financial aid, social support and academic engagement in college.

As it is stated in the previous section, the third research question that is to be answered in this study was identifying the predictor variable that is more important in explaining the variation in first year CGPA in college study. In order to answer this question, stepwise regression analysis was computed. The results of the stepwise regression analysis (Table 3) revealed that preparatory class average score was found to be more important variable in explaining the variation in college performance. Preparatory class average score alone accounted for 31.70 percent of the variance on the first year CGPA, $R^2 = 0.317$, $F(1, 482) = 223.525$, $p < 0.01$. This means that students who performed better during the preparatory class also performed better in college. Probably these students had the potential to cope with the academic atmosphere in college more easily than others. This may also imply the relevance of the content being taught in preparatory schools in preparing students for university.

The result that preparatory class average score is the most important variable in explaining the variation in college performance goes along with the results of the previous studies (e.g., Aboma, 2008; Fantu et al., 1996; Yoseph, 2010, 2012), which suggest that high school result (preparatory class average score) is the most important and significant variable in predicting students' ability to succeed in higher learning institutions than other variables. According to Burton and Ramist (2001) and Noble and Sawyer (2002), there are frequent cases in which high school achievement predicted first year grades better than scholastic achievement or aptitude tests. This would not be surprising because high school performance is a work sample of college performance (Wiersma and Jurs, 1990). Furthermore, high school average scores are rather based on performance over a period of time rather than on one-shot evaluation.

The second variable that entered the regression model was university entrance exam result, $R^2 = 0.337$, $F(2, 481) = 122.313$, $p < 0.01$. This means when university entrance exam result was added, R^2 was increased to 0.337. The change in R^2 due to university entrance exam result is significant, change in $R^2 = 0.020$, $F(1, 481) = 14.733$, $p < 0.01$. When university entrance exam result entered, the prediction of college CGPA has improved by 2.0 percent.

This finding is consistent with the result reported by Geiser and Santelices (2007). They stated that significant correlations were observed between college GPA with high school GPA ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$), SAT II ($r = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$), and SAT I ($r = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). The possible explanation why university entrance exam result contributed less to the prediction of college CGPA could be that this exam is a one shot examination. It is administered every year at one specific moment. Apparently, such examination is susceptible to factors that can distort students' true score. Among others, cheating and examination anxiety during examination can be mentioned.

As it is indicated above, it is not university entrance exam result, but preparatory class average score that accounts for the lion's share of the explained variance in college CGPA. According to

Geiser and Santelices (2007), one hypothesis that may account for the preparatory class average scores to predict cumulative college GPA may be “method covariance,” or the methodological similarity in the way these academic indicators are constructed. That is, both preparatory class average score and cumulative college GPA reflect student performance in a large number of courses taken over a period of time. Both measures are based on similar kinds of academic experiences - term papers, quizzes, labs, end - of - course examinations so that it should not be surprising that prior performance on these kinds of academic tasks tends to be predictive of later performance.

Nevertheless, this study is not free of limitations. Especially the following limitations should be taken into account before any form of generalization can be made of the result of the study. First, as the study was confined to one college, the results may not necessarily apply to students in other colleges and universities. Second, this study focused on some potential student variables affecting performance at college. Non cognitive, institutional and environmental variables that play important role in the prediction of college success (e.g., Demewoz et al., 2005; Ebel and Frisbie, 1991; Eggen and Kauchak, 2001) were not considered. Third, it is known that correlation coefficient is based on the reliability and validity of scores on predictor and criterion variables (Mehrens and Lehmann, 1991). However, there are some defects on the psychometric quality of the tests used by colleges and universities. This study like other predictive validity studies, shares this problem. Hence, to interpret validity data correctly, it is necessary to be aware of this problem. Finally, lack of related studies in similar research settings limited the possible comparisons that could be made.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Concluding remarks: From the preceding findings it may be possible to arrive at the following conclusions.

1. Preparatory class average score and university entrance exam result appear to be valid predictors of first year college CGPA.
2. Preparatory class average score is found out to be the more valid predictor of first year college CGPA than university entrance exam result.
3. University entrance exam result is a statistically significant predictor of first year college performance, but it has low contribution to the variation compared to the other variable considered in the study.
4. The combination of the two variables is found to be statistically significant to predict the academic performance of college students.

The findings of this study seem to have some practical implications to the selection criteria of higher learning institutions of the country and future direction of research. Preparatory class average score was found to be more influential in predicting first year college academic performance than university entrance exam result. Thus, it would be better to consider preparatory class average score as a selection criterion along university entrance exam result on the basis of their importance during admission process. It would also be better to arrange special educational support programs for students with low preparatory class average score and university entrance exam result. Possible assistances such as tutorial classes, guidance on study skills, note taking skills and other basic academic skills can be organized. Finally, it would also

be useful to conduct further study to examine the predictive power of preparatory class average score and university entrance exam result in predicting college academic performance in other universities in Ethiopia along non cognitive variables such as achievement motivation and study habit. Further research on this issue will help in explaining the variation in college first year performance.

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Table 1. Mean, SD and Intercorrelations Matrix among Variables (N=484)

Variables*	Mean	S	X ₁	X ₂	Y
University Entrance Exam Result(X ₁)	314.24	26.5	1.00	0.129**	0.214**
Preparatory Class Average	66.97	6.23		1.000	0.563**
College CGPA(Y)	2.36	0.55			1.000

** P < 0.01 [Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)]

*The maximum possible results in X₁, X₂, and Y are 700, 100, and 4.00 respectively.

Table 2. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis (N = 484)

Variables	B	Beta	t	R	R ²	F
Constant	-1.792	-	-5.826**	0.581	0.337	122.313**
X ₁	0.003	0.144	3.838**			
X ₂	0.048	0.554	14.540**			

**p < 0.01, the regression equation is $y' = -1.792 + 0.003X_1 + 0.048X_2$

Table 3. Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis (N = 484)

Step	Variables	Beta	R	R ²	R ² change	F	F change
	Entered						
1	X ₂	.563	.563	.317	.317	223.525**	223.525**
2	X ₂	.544	.581	.337	.020	122.313**	14.733**
	X ₁	.144					

**p < 0.01

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Gender and Emotional Intelligence of Collage going students

Pooja Verma*, Dr. Pubalin Dash**

ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence is social and acquisitive in nature so either consciously or unconsciously parents and children represent their emotion in an expressive way to one another, in their interaction. It seems that further to individual differences of boy and girl, the expectation of society and people around, especially parents, are different in terms of children's sexuality. As per our society, girls are mostly expected to be more expressive of feelings, whereas abstaining from feelings expression in boys is strengthened as a manly model. The research showed that emotional intelligence is meaningful associated with gender differences. The present study examined the effect of effects of emotional intelligence on male and female students. The total participant of the present study is 150 (75 male and 75 female). All students belongs to master level studying in various colleges in Ghaziabad were selected in randomly the data was collected through standardized "Emotional Intelligence Test" by Hydes & Dethe. T-test was conducted to compare between means. Then, an over view of the paper is include a demonstration of the influence of gender differences on Emotional Intelligence is also given. Finally in conclusion it is important to realize that girls are higher than boys in emotional intelligence.

Keywords : Emotional Intelligence, Gender

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to create positive outcomes in relationships with others and with self. Emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990) the emotionally intelligent person is skilled in different areas such as identifying, using, understanding, and regulating the emotions. Emotional intelligence is "the ability to: be aware to understand and to express oneself; be aware of, to understand, and to relate to Others, deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and adapt to change and to solve problems of a personal or a social nature . Studies have shown that

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emotional intelligence impact a leader's ability to be effective (Goleman 1995). As per Goldman's view EI refers "managing feeling so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively and the four major skills that make up emotional intelligence are: self awareness, social awareness, relationship Management and self- management. The major components of emotional intelligence which can be regarded as key to success in life (Dunn, 2003) are as follows: Knowledge about causes of emotions, Self-regulation and modulation of one's emotions, Empathy, Motivation and good decision-making, Ability to analyze and understand relationships, Intuitiveness, Creative and flexible thinking, Integrated self, Balanced life

Chu (2002) revealed that Boys are more emotionally intelligent. Thilagavathy (2013) found that there is no significance difference of emotional intelligence between urban and rural teacher but significance difference exist between male and female teacher where as Gangal and Singh (2012) established that male and female, rural and urban teacher trainee do not differ significantly in reference to their emotional intelligence. The popular belief is that, women are not more emotionally intelligent than men. The challenge to determine whether emotional intelligence and gender are correlated has had mixed result. An analysis of emotional Intelligence was found in thousands of men and women which showed that women, on average, are more aware of their emotions, show more empathy, and are more adopt interpersonally. Men, on the other hand, are more self-confident, optimistic, and adaptable. It was found that men are also able to handle stress better than women. Findings of studies reported by King (1999), Sutarso (1999), Wing and Love (2001) and Singh (2002) revealed that females have higher emotional intelligence than that of males. Since females tend to be more emotional and intimate in relationships as compared to males, so their emotional intelligence ought to be higher than that of males. After taking into account overall ratings for men and women, the strengths and weaknesses average out, so it is a competition between both sexes.

The abilities of emotional intelligence between sexual and age group showed a meaningful difference. Brudy and Hell in their study titled "Sexuality and emotions" that boys and girls learn different lesson to controlling their emotion, Parents mostly talk to their daughter rather than sons, about the emotion (expect for anger). The finding result showed that females got meaning fully higher score than males in emotional intelligence, but emotional intelligence is a more distinguished predictor in men's life.

Gender difference in emotional intelligence among college going student

Evidence suggests that there are gender differences and similarities in academic success at different levels of education around the globe. Studies on emotional intelligence have shown its relevance to many aspects of life and the role it plays in the interactions and adjustments in daily life. Punia and Sangwan (2011) found that girls are more emotionally intelligent than boys. For instance, in the Caribbean, it was found at the secondary school level that there was a significant gender difference in academic achievement in favor of the girls in Barbados and St Vincent (Cumberbatch 1993; Fayombo 2010). Likewise, Dayıoğlu, and Türit-Aşik (2004) found that females excel in their studies and performed better than their male counterparts among

undergraduate students in a large public university in Turkey. Only in recent years have there been various publications on the impact of emotional intelligence on college students (Bellack, 1999; Elder, 1997; Jaeger, 2003, Liptak, 2005; Ramos-Sanchez & Nichols, 2007), including doctoral studies (Feldman, 2003; Holt, 2007; Vela, 2004, Walker, 2006; Westphal, 2007), showing a positive correlation between academic success and higher emotional intelligence. Chickering (1993) identified managing emotions as one of the seven vectors in college student development. Research in the area has shown that college going student with emotional intelligence score also tend to be more successful academically. Thus, it is seen that the studies conducted come up with different results and it is becoming difficult to make generalizations. When we consider the number of factors having impact on the levels of emotional intelligence and their form of impact, it is clear that conducting several studies on this field, at different places by using different variables is necessary.

METHOD

Aim:

The purpose of the present study is to compare emotional intelligence between college going Girls and Boys.

Objective:

To compare the level of Emotional Intelligence of college going Boys & Girls.

Hypothesis:

There are significant gender differences concerning emotional intelligence.

Sample

The research sample comprised of one hundred and fifty participants (N=150) consisted 75 female participants (N=75), 75 male participants (N=75). All belong to master level, aged 22-25 years. All participants were from Ghaziabad PG collage. The duration of a research study was 4 months.

Tool

1. Emotional Intelligence questionnaire test developed by “Anmol Hyde & Sanjyot Dethe”.
2. Personal data sheet.

Procedure

There were 150 respondents were randomly contacted and convinced for the study in their free time. All the participants were briefed about how to rate the response of the scale. Most of the students completed the test however, some questionnaires were returned incomplete on invalidly filled. They were not included in the sample.

Statistical Analyses

The entire data were coded for analyzing the data; T-test was applied to measure the mean difference of participants. All the calculations were calculated manually.

Table-1

1.Self awareness				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	17.14	2.58	0.15*
Female	75	17.2	2.13	
2.Empathic				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	18.61	3.86	1.50*
Female	75	19.47	3.1	
3. Self –motivated				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	23.14	3.12	0.94*
Female	75	23.8	5.19	
4. Emotionally stable				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	15.39	3.12	0.72*
Female	75	15.76	2.69	
5.Manageable in relation				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	15.39	3.59	0.72*
Female	75	15.76	2.67	
6. Integrated				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	13.97	3.94	3.82*
Female	75	12.01	2.06	
7. Self-developed				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	8.85	2.01	3.14*
Female	75	7.94	1.46	
8. Value oriented				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	8.13	2.01	1.60*
Female	75	8.52	1.468	
9. Committed				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	8.64	1.66	2.35*
Female	75	7.99	1.72	
10.Altruistic				
Sex	N	Mean	S.D.	t-values
Male	75	7.96	1.85	2.24*
Female	75	8.56	1.39	

Result and Interpretation

With respect to gender, comparison between the means of two groups in this study (boys and girls) which is presented in Table 1, where different dimensions were compared and it indicates that the “self-awareness” in the boys ($M=17.14$) is less than that of girls ($M=17.20$). In “Empathy” the girls score ($M=19.47$) is higher than that of boys ($M=18.61$). This is in accordance with the general perception about girls that girls are more sensitive about feeling helpful in all circumstances for other. Tapia (1999) and Dunn (2002) suggested that girls score higher with regard to empathy, social responsibilities and interpersonal relationships than boys. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parents, friends and siblings. As revealed above table “self motivation” in the boys ($m=23.14$) are lower than of girls ($m=23.80$) and same in “emotional stability” of boys ($m=15.39$) is also lower than of girls ($m=15.76$), it is also indicated that in “managing relation” the girls ($m=15.76$) are higher than boys (15.39). But the t-value indicated that no significant difference at 0.05 level of confidence in all dimensions. But it shows that “integrity” in boys ($m=13.97$) is higher than that of girls ($m=12.01$) and “self development” of boys ($m=8.85$) is higher than that of girls (7.94). But the t-value indicated that significant difference at 0.05 level of confidence. This is accordance with the general perception about the boys, boys are more committed than girls. As the revealed in above table that the “value orientation” of girls ($m=8.52$) is higher than of boys ($m=8.13$), boys ($m=8.64$) are higher than that of girls ($m=7.99$) in “commitment”. Adeyemo (2007) found that emotional intelligence is positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. But the t-values indicates difference is not significant at 0.01 level of confidence. So the studies are neither in favor nor in against of it. In the last dimension, the result shows that the “Altruistic behavior” girls ($m=8.56$) is higher than of boys ($m=7.96$) but the t-value indicated their difference is not significant at 0.01 level of confidence. The result is not conclusive and further researches are needed in this direction for more clarification.

Discussion and Conclusion

As per the result table girls are more self aware, empathic, self-motivated, emotionally stable, value oriented, altruistic and also manageable in relation than boys. But boys are more integrated, self-developed, and committed than girls.

On the basis of above discussion, it can be said that accept two dimensions: integrity and self-development, rest dimensions have lack of significant difference. Out of ten dimensions, eight dimensions show little difference in relation to gender. So, it can be concluded from discussion that there is no major gender difference in relation to emotional intelligence. Eisenberg (1994) also suggested that men and women significantly differ in their styles of emotional intelligence. Women and girls are generally considered more caring and emotionally responsive than men and boys. So these results are supported by Eisenberg.

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Life Satisfaction and Stress Level among Working and Non-Working Women

Dr. Shashi Kala Singh*

ABSTRACT

The main aim of the present study was to examine the life satisfaction and stress among working and non-working women. A sample of 200 women (100working &100non-working) was drawn randomly from the population. Life Satisfaction Scale by Alam & Srivastava (1996) and stress scale by Singh (2004) were used for data collection. Mean, standard deviation, 't' test and correlation were the statistics calculated. The results indicated that there was significant difference regarding life satisfaction and stress between working and non-working women. Results revealed that working and non-working women differed significantly on their life satisfaction ($t=5.52$). Working women were more satisfied with their life, on stress scale non-working women have higher level stress as compared to working women. A significant negative relationship was found between life satisfaction and stress.

Keywords: Life Satisfaction, Stress and Working and Non-Working Women

INTRODUCTION

Satisfaction is a state of mind. It is an evaluative appraisal of something. The term refers to both 'contentment' and 'enjoyment'. As such it covers cognitive- as well as affective-appraisals. Satisfaction can be both evanescent and stable through time. Current synonyms for life satisfaction are: 'happiness' and 'subjective well-being'. One advantage in using the term 'life-satisfaction' rather than the word 'happiness' is that it emphasizes the subjective character of the concept. The word happiness is also used to refer to an objective good; especially by philosophers. The term life-satisfaction has the advantage over the label of 'subjective well-being' is that life-satisfaction refers to an overall evaluation of life rather than to current feelings or to specific psychosomatic symptoms.

Growing economies and modern times have witnessed a rise in the number of dual-career families with deleterious effects on Life Satisfaction. In all countries the economic development requires an integration of both male and female labor forces. That is men and women both have to contribute to development process of the country as the labor of women contributes to economic growth and poverty reduction. Traditionally, the major responsibility of women has been perceived to be the maintenance of the family including home and childcare and breadwinning was the main responsibility of men. However, with more and more women entering the workforce and pursuing careers, these clearly defined gender roles were forced to change (Sevim, 2006). Work and family are the two most important aspects in women's lives.

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Life satisfaction is defined as an overall, “global assessment” of feelings and attitudes about one’s life at a particular point in time according to that individual’s “chosen criteria” (Kuskova V. Valentina, 2011). Life satisfaction can create colossal catastrophic consequences for both, the individual as an employee or the individual as a family member. Life satisfaction was defined as an individual’s global assessment of his or her life in positive terms (Diener, et.al.,1985).

Life satisfaction is also defined as an overall assessment of feelings and attitudes about one’s life at a particular point in time ranging from negative to positive. Subjective life satisfaction is a measure of an individual's perceived level of wellbeing and happiness. Satisfaction with life as a whole must be satisfaction not only with that which is, but also with that which was and that which will be, not only with the present, but also with the past and the future. (Tatarkiewicz, 1976).

Life satisfaction is one factor in the more general construct of subjective wellbeing. Life satisfaction is distinguished from affective appraisal in that it is more cognitively than emotionally driven. Life satisfaction can be assessed specific to a particular domain of life or globally. Satisfaction is a state of mind. It is an evaluative appraisal of something. The term refers to both ‘contentment’ and ‘enjoyment’. As such it covers cognitive-as well as affective-appraisals. Satisfaction can be both evanescent and stable through time. Life-satisfaction is the degree to which a person positively evaluates the overall quality of his/her life as-a-whole. In other words, how much the person likes the life he/she leads? The concept of life-satisfaction denotes an overall evaluation of life. So the appraisal that life is ‘exciting’ does not necessarily mean that it is ‘satisfying’. There may be too much excitement in life, and too few other qualities. An overall evaluation of life involves all relevant criteria in the mind of the individual: for example, how good one feels, how well expectations are likely to be met and how desirable various factors are deemed to be, etc.

Life satisfaction is the way a person perceives how his or her life has been and how they feel about where it is going in the future. It is a measure of well-being and may be assessed in terms of mood, satisfaction with relations with others and with achieved goals, self-concepts, and self-perceived ability to cope with daily life. It is having a favorable attitude of one's life as a whole rather than their current feelings. Life satisfaction has been measured in relation to economic standing, amount of education, experiences, and the people's residence as well as many other topics.

Life satisfaction is defined as having a favorable attitude towards one’s life as a whole. Life satisfaction is defined as having a favorable attitude towards one’s life as a whole. The vast majority of studies investigating life satisfaction have been survey based. Life satisfaction can reflect experiences that have affected a person in a positive way. These experiences have the ability to motivate people to pursue and reach their goals.

Life satisfaction is often considered a desirable goal in and of itself stemming from the Aristotelian ethical model, eudemonism, (from eudemonia, the Greek word for happiness) where correct actions lead to individual well-being with happiness representing the supreme good. Stress has been defined both as a non specific adaptive response of the body to any demand and an internal and external stimulus. Stress can be said to involve three major conceptual domains: sources of stress, moderators of stress and the manifestations of stress (Pearlin et al., 1981). We live in stressful times. We are holding down two or more jobs. We are putting up with heavy job

loads and unreasonable demands. We are swallowing outrage and frustration with unfair situations and irrational superiors because we cannot afford to be laid off or fired.

Women in India have come a long way after independence. From just a skilled homemaker, women today have acquired skills and capabilities of not just being a homemaker but being at par with their male counterparts. This is the new generation of women, who wants to pursue their dream career. But this life is not a bed of roses for all. While there is little consensus among psychologists about the exact definition of stress, it is agreed that stress results when demands placed on an organism cause unusual physical, psychological, or emotional responses. In humans, stress originates from a multitude of sources and causes a wide variety of responses, both positive and negative.

Indian families are undergoing rapid changes due to the increased pace of urbanization and modernization. Indian women belonging to all classes have entered into paid occupations. At the present time, Indian women's exposure to educational opportunities is substantially higher than it was some decades ago, especially in the urban setting. This has opened new vistas, increased awareness and raised aspirations of personal growth. This, along with economic pressure, has been instrumental in influencing women's decision to enter the work force. Most studies of employed married women in India have reported economic need as being the primary reason given for working. One of the most frequently faced psychological problems of recent years is stress and stress related illnesses. Due to an ever changing world, everybody is affected by stress regardless of age, gender, profession, social or economic status. Because of these rapid changes, people live most of their lives under stress. Therefore, the notion of stress has become a widely recognized problem in all aspects of life.

Work-life balance is the maintenance of a balance between responsibilities at work and at home. Work and family have increasingly become antagonist spheres, equally greedy of energy and time and responsible for work-family conflict. We know that stress paralyses the human life on account of which it is difficult for people suffering of stress to live the normal life. Life satisfaction and stress are interrelated with each other. A number of researchers in the specific field have been conducted to measure the level of life satisfaction and stress among working and non working women.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Currently, the literature suggests that personality play a significant role in whether a woman will judge her life to be satisfying. However, proximal environmental factors can influence life satisfaction judgments in the short term. Chipper field and Havens (2001) conducted study to examine life satisfaction among individuals who had undergone a transition in marital status and those whose marital status remained stable over 7- year period. Among those individuals whose marital status remained stable over the 7 years, women's life satisfaction declined and men's remained constant. Among those who experienced a transition- in particular, the loss of spouse - a decline in life satisfaction was found for both men and women decline being more predominant for men. In addition, men's life satisfaction increased over the 7 years period if they gained a spouse, whereas the same was not true for women.

Generally, these findings imply that the relationship between marital status transitions or stability differs for men and women. Saundra and Hughey (2003) conducted a study on life satisfaction. In this study, 147 African American women from six states were asked to complete the Adult Life Satisfaction Scale and the Black Women's Spirituality/Religiosity Measure (BWSRM).

Although no significant difference was found among the ratings of life satisfaction and spirituality with respect to age or educational level, the women reported higher levels of religiosity than spirituality, which correlates significantly with life satisfaction. Kousha and Moheen (2004) explored life satisfaction among unmarried Iranian women in urban areas. A series of path analysis and cross tabulations suggest that for married women life satisfactions directly linked to their satisfaction with marriage, employment and their leisure experiences. For women hours satisfaction and job satisfaction indicate that women prefer part-time jobs irrespective of whether these are small or large.

In contrast, female life satisfaction is virtually unaffected by hours of work. Women without children do not care about their hours of work at all, while women with children are significantly happier if they have a job regardless of how many hours it entails. (Ayres & Malouff, 2007) have also highlighted the importance of a brief problem-solving training in the workplace that can increase problem-solving skills and problem solving self-efficacy in the course of improving positive effect, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Moving away from work impacts on life satisfaction, (Perrone et.al.2007) found that satisfaction with work and marriage was significantly related to life satisfaction. (Schaer, 2008) also stressed on Couples Coping Enhancement Training to increase dyadic competencies which can have positive effects on the general well-being, life satisfaction and other workplace variables like less burnout and less work stress.

According to Northern Territory Government report(2003) workplace stress is the result of the interaction between a person and their work environment. Forth person it is the awareness of not being able to cope with the demands of their work environment, with an associated negative emotional response. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007) has carried out the study on work related stress.

According to its report work-related stress is a pattern of reactions that occurs when workers are presented with work demands that are not matched to their knowledge, skills or abilities, and which challenge their ability to cope. Park (2007), in their study of work place and job performance, found that negative implications of work stress are recognized as a challenge to both employers and workers, with women, youth, shift, part-time, and non white collar workers being more likely to have high-strain jobs.

HYPOTHESES

1. Working and non- working women will differ significantly with regard to their life satisfaction.
2. Working and non- working women will differ significantly with regard to their stress level.
3. Life satisfaction and stress were interred related.

SAMPLE

The sample was drawn from working and non- working women of Ranchi. Thus 100 working (who were teacher in the Govt. schools) and 100 non-working women (housewives) were drawn randomly. Working women were highly qualified. Age range of women was 26- 40 years.

INSTRUMENT

Life Satisfaction Scale - It was developed and standardized by Alam and Srivastava (1996). The test consist of 60 items of yes/no type. Yes indicate the satisfaction. Higher scores show higher satisfaction level. The range of age was between 18 to 40 years. Test-retest reliability of the test was found to be .84 and Validity is .74.

Stress Scale- It was developed by Singh (2004). The range of age was between 16 to 50 years. Test-retest reliability of the test was found to be .82 and Validity is .61. Higher scores show higher stress level.

PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was done using random sampling. Purpose of the study was made clear to the participants. The general instructions were given to participants to complete the inventories. Help was provided to the participants in case they found any of the items difficult to comprehend. Filled questionnaires were collected from participants for statistical analysis of data.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In the present study Mean, SDs, t-test and r- test was applied for statistical analysis of data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The main aim of present study was examined of life satisfaction and stress among working and non-working women. The “t” test method was used to analysis data. Results discussions of present study are as under:

Table -1: Means, SDs and “t” value of Working and Non-Working Women on Life Satisfaction

Groups	N	Means	SDs	t	P value
Working women	100	51.87	18.79	5.52	0.01
Non-working women	100	39.49	12.39		

The result from table – 1, show that there is significant difference between working and non-working women for life satisfaction. The working woman received higher mean score 51.87as compared to the non-working woman39.49. The standard deviation score of working woman received 18.79and the non-working woman received12.39. So we can say that working woman have higher level of life satisfaction than the non-working woman. The “t” value of life satisfaction is 5.52. There is significant difference between working and working woman. It means hypothesis was supported. Working women were more satisfied with their life. They get salary, earn money, so they can fulfill their needs. They support their family and husband. Working women do not depend upon their husband or family, economically they were independent. For this reason they get satisfaction in life. They perceived their life to be secure. They feel comfortable with their life situations. On the other hand the non-working women are less satisfied with their lives. They underestimate in front of working women. Similar result was found by Bhatt (2013).

Figure 1 – Mean value of Working and Non-Working Women on Life Satisfaction

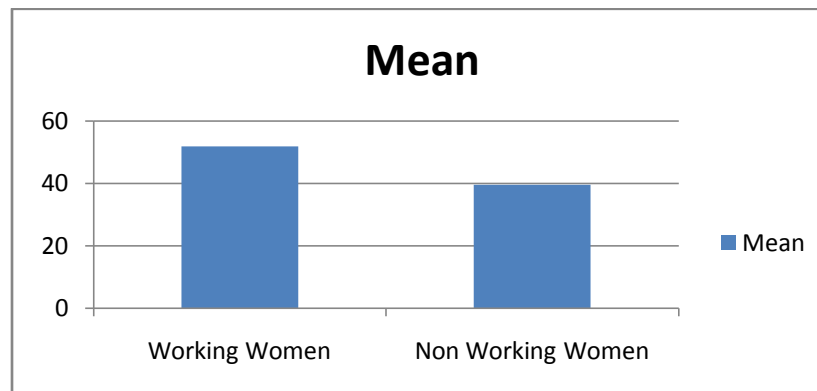


Table-2: Means, SDs and “t” value of working and non-working women on stress

Groups	N	Means	SDs	t	P value
Working women	100	21.85	10.39	7.21	0.01
Non-working women	100	34.26	13.79		

According to table-2 the mean scores of non-working women were higher 34.26 as compared to working women 21.85. This is indicative of the fact that non- working women were facing more stress than working women. Hence, it confirmed the hypothesis which states that “Working and non- working women will differ significantly with regard to their stress level”. High stress among non-working women is due to the fact that non-working women occupy multiple roles which are inconsistent and create conflicting situations. Our society still demands the traditional roles of women as homemaker.

Figure 2 – Mean value of Working and Non-Working Women on Stress

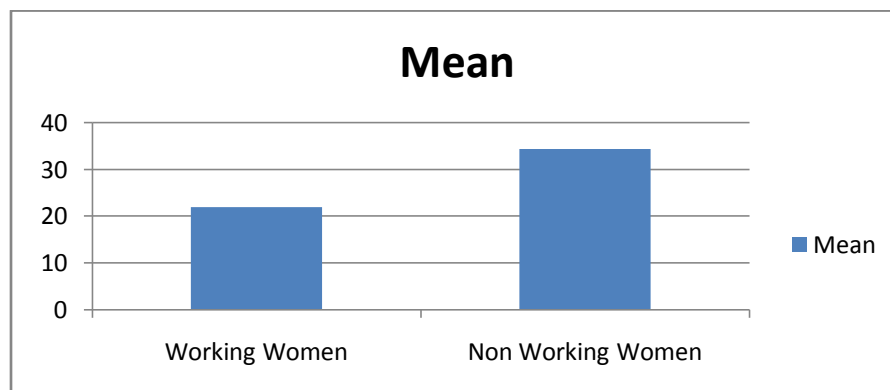


Table-3 – Correlation coefficients of life satisfaction and stress (N=200)

	Stress	P value
Life Satisfaction	-0.3125341	0.01

According to above table there was a negative correlation between stress and life satisfaction. This correlation showed that as long as the stress levels increase their life satisfaction level decreases. This showed that stress have a meaningful negative effect on life satisfaction. Those persons who were satisfied with there life, they were have less stress in their life. Azzem & Ozdevecioglu (2013) were found similar result. Thus, our hypothesis was proved.

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Adjustment, emotional control and perceived loneliness among adolescents

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INTRODUCTION

Adjustment is the behavioral process by which humans and other animals maintain equilibrium among their various needs or between their needs and the obstacles of their environments. A sequence of adjustment begins when a need is felt and ends when it is satisfied. Hungry people, for example, are stimulated by their physiological state to seek food. When they eat, they reduce the stimulating condition that impelled them to activity, and they are thereby adjusted to this particular need. In general, the adjustment process involves four parts: (1) a need or motive in the form of a strong persistent stimulus, (2) the thwarting or no fulfillment of this need, (3) varied activity, or exploratory behavior accompanied by problem solving, and (4) some response that removes or at least reduces the initiating stimulus and completes the adjustment. Social and cultural adjustments are similar to physiological adjustments. People strive to be comfortable in their surroundings and to have their psychological needs (such as love or affirmation) met through the social networks they inhabit. When needs arise, especially in new or changed surroundings, they impel interpersonal activity meant to satisfy those needs. In this way, people increase their familiarity and comfort with their environments, and they come to expect that their needs will be met in the future through their social networks. On-going difficulties in social and cultural adjustment may be accompanied by anxiety or depression. Psychology of Adjustment is an applied Psychology course that teaches the basics of human adjustment in everyday life. Applications of the concepts taught in this course help students understand themselves better, change their behaviors, and enhance their relationships. The term adjustment is often used as a synonym for accommodation and adaptation. Strictly speaking, the term denotes the results of equilibrium, which may be affected by either of these processes (Monroe, 1990). It is used to emphasize the individual's struggle to along or survive in his or her social and physical environment. Good (1959) states that adjustment is the process of finding and adopting modes of behavior suitable to the environment or the changes in the environment. Shafer (1961) emphasized that adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. Kulshrestha (1979) explained that the adjustment process is a way in which the individual attempts to deal with stress, tensions, conflicts etc., and meet his or her needs. In this process, the individual also makes efforts to maintain harmonious relationships with the environment.

In adjustment, the two crucial factors are the individual and the environment. In the study of the individual, the considerations are the heredity and biological factors, the psychological factors, and the quality of socialization given to him or her. Whereas, the environment includes all the social factors. Every individual from the time he or she steps out of the family and goes to school makes to a long series of adjustments between the whole unique personality and the environment. The ardent desire of each boy and girl to become an individual person having a healthy physique, a growing intellectual ability, a greater degree of emotional poise and increased participation in social groups, such characteristics enhance one's personality. Even parents, teachers and other significant members of the society to which person belong will encourage this desire. The school is the major socialization institution for any child. It is the child's first contact with the world outside the house. For nearly 12 years a child spends 5 to 7 hours a day in the school. School is one the most important foundation pillars on which the child's personality develops. Children learn proficiencies in various abilities like, learning process and homework, social communications, handling emotion, and the management of day to day interactions at home and

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-school. In reality, the growing child is dependent on the immediate environment i.e. the house and the school to meet his growth needs. The concern, therefore” extends to how the school facilities can be enhanced and improved to meet the growth needs of the children. Several studies have been reported in the area of social, educational, health and emotional adjustment of school students of both sexes. Some studies try to relate adjustment with variables like intelligence, achievement, age, sex, socio-economic status, needs, anxiety, and security. Student’s reaction to frustration has also been studied. A few studies focused on the nature, causes, and extent of indiscipline among students. The relation between indiscipline and variables like achievement, participation in co-curricular activities etc., were also examined.

A review of the studies carried out in the field of adjustment as reported in the three surveys of educational research edited by Buch (1991) reveals that no systematic attempt has yet been made to develop a tool for the assessment of adjustment problems of students.

Emotion control:

Many contemporary theories of emotion contend that emotion is organized around two primary motivational systems (Davidson & Irwin, 1999; Gray, 1994; Lang, Bradley, & Cuthbert, 1990; Schneirla, 1959). The defensive system is responsible for withdrawal or avoidance behavior and mediates unpleasant emotions. The appetitive system is responsible for approach behavior and underlies pleasant emotions. There is flexibility, however, in the expression of emotion because fear does not always result in our running away or anger in our striking out. In other words, we are able to control our emotions. Emotion control, the term most often used in the literature, has been defined as the processes by which “individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1999, p. 557). Emotion control may occur volitionally when an individual has an explicit goal to modify his/her current motivational state or automatically when there is no explicit regulatory goal but the emotional response is modified nonetheless (Gross & Thompson, 2007).

In other words, we may deliberately control the way we think about an emotional stimulus or how we direct our attention in order to change how we feel, or we may unintentionally change how we feel through our direct experiences such as becoming desensitized to violent media images or habituating to noxious stimuli. Controlled regulation involves the selection of a strategy to alter or maintain an emotional state in line with current goals (Bergh & Williams, 2007). Gross (1998) classified regulation strategies into antecedent-focused strategies, which are aimed at the emotion-eliciting stimulus, and response-focused strategies, which are aimed at the behavioural or physiological responses elicited by a stimulus or situation.

Cognitive reappraisal refers to taking a different perspective on an emotional stimulus by re-interpreting the initial appraisal (Lazarus, 1991). Attention deployment refers to controlling the focus of attention toward or away from an emotional stimulus (Ochsner & Gross, 2007). It is possible that these two strategies may recruit different cognitive processes (Ochsner & Gross, 2005), which may be more or less affected by the aging process. These strategies were employed in this thesis to examine whether age differences in emotion regulation, if found, could be attributed to a particular strategy rather than to a more generalized inability to regulate emotion. Many different definitions of emotion regulation and ways of operationalizing the concept have been proposed. Shields and Cicchetti (1997) characterized emotion regulation as efforts to regulate emotion with the goal of modifying arousal to achieve optimal engagement with the environment. Further, they proposed that temporal features of emotion such as liability, flexibility, and situational responsiveness of expressed emotions all reflect emotion regulation processes. These features have also been referred to as emotionality (Rothbart, Ahadi & Evans, 2000). Other definitions of emotion regulation concentrate more on the mechanisms and processes involved in regulating one’s emotions. Gross (1998) defines emotion regulation as processes that influence which emotions individuals

experience, as well as when and how they express their emotions. Gross notes that both positive and negative emotions can be regulated, and regulation can occur without conscious awareness. Thompson (1994) suggested that emotion regulation processes include both extrinsic and intrinsic processes that aid in monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional responses in order to achieve one's goals.

This includes regulating emotional arousal through enhancement and maintenance as well as inhibition of emotional arousal, and regulation efforts can impact the intensity and duration of experienced emotions. While many conceptualizations of emotion regulation have been utilized, all of the definitions of emotion regulation emphasize that the ability to successfully coordinate one's emotions with the varying stresses of the environment is essential to adaptive functioning (Durbin & Shafir, 2007). It may be that children who experience more intense and frequent emotions have more difficulty in modifying these emotions and thus are more prone to experiencing symptoms of depression. Consistent with this hypothesis, the experience of internalizing symptoms has been linked to temporal features of children's emotion regulation including the frequency, duration, intensity, and recovery of expressed emotions. Specifically, children in fourth and fifth grade with internalizing symptoms have been found to have a higher level of fear emotionality (Rydell, Berlin, & Bohlin, 2003). Another study found that children five to eight years old with internalizing symptoms have been found to be more likely to express their anger and sadness in ways that are excessive and not constructive (Zeman, Shipman, & Suveg, 2002). In addition, depressive symptoms in early to mid-adolescence have been linked to experiencing greater lability and intensity of sadness, anger, and anxiety (Silk, Steinberg, & Morris, 2003). Internalizing symptoms may also be related to emotion regulation processes. Emotion regulation processes refers to how emotions are managed after they are aroused and experienced at a certain level of intensity (Rydell, Berlin & Bohlin, 2003). As noted earlier (Thompson, 1994), emotion regulation processes are involved in the evaluation, monitoring, and modification of emotion. Specifically, more depressed children may process emotional events in a biased way. For example, depressed children ages eight to sixteen have difficulties inhibiting the processing of negative emotional information in order to concentrate on another task (Ladouceur, Dahl, Williamson, Birmaher, Ryan & Casey, 2005). Based on Beck's model of depression, Leitenberg (1984) proposed four common errors in the thinking of depressed children.

Overgeneralization occurs when an individual assumes that an outcome in one situation will always occur in responses to that situation and similar situations in the future. Catastrophizing occurs when an individual misconstrues an event as catastrophic or expects the outcome of an event will be disastrous. Personalization transpires when an individual interprets negative events as having some sort of personal significance or feels personally responsible for these events. Selective abstraction refers to instances in which the individual concentrates on only negative aspects of a situation. Increased cognitive errors have been linked to both depressive symptomatology and clinical depression in middle childhood (Leitenberg, 1994; Epkins, 1998; Cole & Turner, 1993; Tems, Stewart, Skinner, Hughes, & Emslie, 1993). Further, cognitive errors explain unique variability in depressive symptomatology above and beyond both the perceived and actual competence of the child (Epkins, 1998). Another aspect of emotion regulation that may be related to depressive symptoms is the monitoring of one's emotions. Monitoring one's emotional state includes having an awareness of one's emotions (Thompson, 1994). Individuals who have an impoverished awareness of their emotions may consequently experience difficulties in the regulation and expression of these emotions, which may affect their susceptibility to developing depression (Lane & Schwartz, 1987). For example, children who are aware of their emotions may be more able to consider and execute strategies which allow the individual to better cope with the situation which initially evoked the emotion (Southam-Gerow & Kendall, 2000). Poor awareness of emotions has been found to be positively correlated with internalizing symptoms (Zeman, Shipman & Suveg, 2002), and specifically, depressive symptomatology (Penza-Clyve & Zeman, 2002). Thus, it seems likely that if children lack awareness of their emotions, they may not engage in constructive coping strategies that would allow the modification of the problematic situations and emotions.

Emotion regulation also refers to processes that can modify emotion, such as coping strategies (Thompson, 1994). Children who are not able to effectively alter or address their negative emotions through coping strategies are likely more at risk for experiencing depressive symptoms. Coping refers to the efforts made by children to regulate responses which may arise due to stressful events, including their emotions, cognitions, and behavioural and physiological responses (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). Coping can be both cognitive and behavioral in nature. For example, Ayers, Sandler, West & Roosa (1996) discussed avoidant coping as including both actions (e.g., coping by avoiding problems) and cognitions of avoidance (e.g., refusing to think about it).

Self-control of emotion:

Like other areas of self-control, understanding the development of control of emotions necessitates examination of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Calkins, 1994). Intrinsic factors mean those individual differences that are usually thought of as “innate.” However, according to Gottlieb, 1991, no differences in physical, physiological, or biological characteristics are ever solely the result of genes without important environmental input. Intrinsic factors include the temperamental disposition of the child, certain cognitive skills, and the underlying neural and physiological systems that support and are engaged in the process of control (Calkins, 1994; Fox, 1994; Fox, Henderson, & Marshall, 2001). Extrinsic factors include the manner in which caregiver’s shape and socialize emotional responses of the child. In addition, other socializing agents, including siblings and peers, influence the extent to which children successfully utilize self-control strategies. Over the past 10 years there has been an increased recognition of the importance of self-control of emotion in the developmental literature (e.g., Fox, 1994). It has also led to some confusion or ambiguity as to exactly what is meant by “regulation” of emotion. Some have argued that emotion regulation is defined by both the intrinsic and extrinsic processes involved in the monitoring, evaluating, and moderating of emotional responses (Thompson, 1994). Others have noted that emotions themselves regulate social interaction (Campos, Mumme, Kermoian, & Campos, 1994). Redefining emotion regulation as the processes involved in self-control of emotion may help eliminate some of the ambiguity in these definitional issues. Defining self-control of emotion first necessitates agreement on the nature of emotion. Most contemporary definitions of emotion agree that it is a psychological state of specific duration that involves expressive behaviour for communication. This state is the result of cognitive appraisal or evaluation of a change in the environment. It may also involve peripheral physiological changes that contribute to the intensive aspects of the state.

Perceived loneliness:

Even though the phenomenon of loneliness has been described in literature and arts since ancient time, it is difficult to define it. Loneliness is universal, still very subjective feeling, natural to all human beings. For its subjectivity, many people may be ashamed of talking about it or admitting they feel lonely because they are afraid of being stigmatized. Loneliness may also have different meaning for different people which makes understanding of loneliness even more difficult. (Killeen 1998, 763-764).

Philosophy and literature have provided different points of view on loneliness over past centuries. Ancient Greek philosophers saw people as social beings and therefore, loneliness was something undesirable. In Christianity, on the other hand, loneliness has represented a way of one’s self-fulfillment and connection with God. By contrast, romanticism deals with loneliness as one’s fate, unwanted but unchangeable. Romantic heroes rebel against conventions and laws given by hypocritical society and they become outcasts. In spite of being strong individuals, they feel lonely and end tragically. Finally, existentialists and humanists give another perspective of loneliness. Although they agree that person stands and acts alone and he alone is responsible for his own choices, humanists add that loneliness is a choice of one’s own free will. (Karnick 2005, 8-9.)

Killeen (1998) summarizes all these perspectives into alienation-connectedness continuum. Beginning from the negative side, there are estrangement and alienation, a rejection by others or a feeling of a complete worthlessness. Next to them stays loneliness which is viewed as “emptiness due to an unfulfilled social and or emotional life” (Killeen 1998, 764). Social isolation and aloneness are two other related concepts. Social isolation balances between loneliness and aloneness, depending on whether it is one’s choice or not. Consequently, aloneness can be understood as one’s preference of being alone. Unlike previous concepts, solitude has a positive meaning. It is a time on one’s own that can be used for self-reflection and creativity. Killeen also covers a concept of connectedness in her work. (Killeen 1998, 764-765.) This concept was first mentioned by Younger (1995) who proposes that through suffering of loneliness, one can find connection with others, nature and universe. Further, some authors, based on interactionism theory, distinguish between emotional and social aspects of loneliness (Younger 1995; Donaldson & Watson 1996, 955; Killeen 1998, 764).

Whereas the social element simply means lack of social contacts or disaffection with a present social network (Savikko 2008, 14), Younger (1995) depicted the emotional loneliness as: “the kind of desperate, lonely Why? Felt by most anyone in moments of crushing hurt, ruin, and deepest despair. ... That which gave life its meaning has become empty and void.” Besides, integrationists believe that one’s personality determines how loneliness is perceived. According to this theory, not only quality but also the extension of loneliness may be evaluated. Interactions theory was criticized for excluding positive side of loneliness; absence of others does not necessarily have to be a negative experience. (Donaldson & Watson 1996, 955; Savikko 2008, 16.)

Thus, according to definition given by Rook (1984, according to Donaldson & Watson 1996, 953), loneliness is: “an enduring condition of emotional state that arises when a person feels estranged from, is misunderstood or rejected by others, and or lacks appropriate social partners for desired activity, particularly activities that provide a sense of social integration and opportunities for emotional intimacy”. (Rook 1984, according to Donaldson & Watson 1996, 953)

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Adjustment problem among adolescents:

The problem of adjustment is so important that psychologists and social scientists are now agreed on issue that most of interpersonal, inter-group and person- group relations in various intensities are the product of success or failure of adjustment. Kulshrestha (1979) describes adjustment is a way in which the individual attempts to deal with stress, tension, conflict, anxiety etc. and meets his/her needs. Adjustment is, thus a state of harmony between the individual and his/her social environment. One's adjustment is influenced by several factors in society as well as the factors within the person and (Psychological) concerned. Several studies have been conducted in the areas of social, educational, health and emotional adjustment of school students of both sexes. Mohsin, et.al. (1985) have reported that male subjects have higher adjustment than female subjects. Singh (1995) observed that early adolescent girls were better adjusted in the areas of home and emotional, whereas early adolescent boys were better adjusted in the areas of health and social adjustment. Raju and Rahamtullah (2007) stated that boys are significantly better adjusted than girls on the emotional adjustment area. Abdullah (2009) found significant sex difference in the level of adjustment problem.

Mahmondi (2010) found that gender had no differential influence over adjustment scores in home, health, emotional and social area. Roy, Ekka and Ara (2011) observed that female students were better adjusted than male students.

Emotional control/regulation among adolescents:

Recent research has led to an increased interest in the role of emotional processes in normal and atypical development (Southam-Gerow & Kendall, 2001), with the regulation and deregulation of emotions being a primary focus of this research. Indeed, emotion regulation (ER) difficulties have been implicated in several forms of developmental psychopathology (e.g., Bradley, 2000; Cole, Michel, & Teti, 1994; Gross, 1998). Furthermore, ER skills have been positively linked to both pro social behaviour (e.g., Shields, Cicchetti, & Ryan, 1994) and resiliency to multiple risks (Lengua, 2002) among children. In contrast to the growing body of literature on ER among children and adults, few studies have investigated ER and ER difficulties in adolescents (Gross, 1998; Zeman, Cassano, Perry-Parrish, & Stegall, 2006). However, emerging evidence for the central role of ER processes in adolescent development (e.g., Garnefski, Kraaij, & van Etten, 2005; Silk, Steinberg, & Morris, 2003) highlights the importance of examining ER among adolescents. One likely reason for the relative lack of research in this area (despite its clear clinical significance) may be the limited number of available measures of ER for adolescents (Zeman et al., 2006). Thus, the primary goal of the present study was to extend the extant research on adolescent ER difficulties by exploring the factor structure and psychometric properties of an existing adult measure of ER difficulties among adolescents. One promising measure for the comprehensive assessment of ER difficulties is the Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Originally developed for use with adults, the DERS was designed to provide a comprehensive assessment of clinically relevant ER difficulties across multiple domains. Moreover, suggesting its potential utility for adolescents, the DERS is based on a conceptual definition of ER influenced most directly by theoretical literature on ER in youth (Cole et al., 1994; Thompson, 1994). Items of the DERS focus mainly on the regulation of negative emotional states, as difficulties in this domain are considered to have particular clinical relevance.

Whereas much of the literature on ER in adulthood emphasizes the control and reduction of negative emotions, the childhood literature emphasizes the functionality of emotions and the problems associated with deficits in the capacity to experience the full range of emotions, with some developmental researchers defining ER as "...the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions to accomplish one's goals" (Thompson, 1994, pp.27-28). Further, research using this measure with adults has repeatedly linked the DERS to clinically-relevant phenomena in both clinical and nonclinical samples. Specifically, scores on the DERS showed statistically significant relations with behaviours thought to serve an emotion regulating function, including deliberate self-harm (Gratz & Roemer, 2008), intimate partner abuse perpetration among men (Gratz, Paulson, Jakupcak, & Tull, 2009), and cocaine-dependence (Fox et al., 2007). Further, scores on the DERS have been found to be heightened among individuals with psychiatric disorders thought to be characterized by ER difficulties, including borderline personality disorder (BPD; vs. non-PD outpatients; Gratz, Rosenthal, Tull, Lejuez, & Gunderson, 2006), probable PTSD (vs. trauma-exposed individuals without PTSD; Tull, Barrett, McMillan, & Roemer, 2007), and panic attacks (vs. non-panickers; Tull & Roemer, 2007).

Perceived loneliness:

Loneliness is a very important factor affecting our overall mental health and achievement in life. Loneliness has been studied in various areas like:

Loneliness in Adolescents:

Though there are many theoretical approaches to identify predictors of loneliness, researchers interested in loneliness have generally agreed on two characteristics of the loneliness experience. Loneliness is an aversive experience, similar to other negative affective states such as depression or anxiety. Loneliness is distinct from social isolation and reflects an individual's subjective perception of deficiencies in one's network of social relationships (Peplau & Perlman, 1982).

Attributes of loneliness:

Contemporary researchers such as Kupersmidt (1999) suggest that loneliness is related to a range of emotional, social and behavioral problems for children, adolescents and adults. Emotional problems are apparent in low self-esteem (Hymel, Rubin, Towden, & Lemare, 1990) depression (Goswick & Jones, 1981), and social anxiety (Moore & Shultz, 1983). Behavioral problems found to impact loneliness in adolescence might include shyness, social withdrawal, spending more time alone (Horowitz, French, & Anderson, 1982; Goswick & Jones, 1981; Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980), dating frequency and decreased participation in religious and extracurricular activities (Brennan, 1982). Similarly, social problems that impact loneliness include peer rejection and victimization, lack of friendships, and lack of high quality friendships (Asher et al., 1984; Asher & Wheeler, 1985; Boivin & Hymel, 1997; Crick & Ladd, 1993; Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996). In addition, Boivin reported that rejected children who are submissive in their behaviour have also been found in several studies to report more loneliness and social dissatisfaction than average-status children (Boivin, Pulin, & Vitaro, 1994; Parker & Asher, 1993).

Effects of the school/ environment:

In most parts of the world, schools and classrooms play an integral role in establishing peer relationships and creating strong bonds of lasting friendships. However, this is not always the case for many young adolescents. Consequences of changing school environments from middle to secondary school can often manifest difficulties in making initial adjustments. Students often report a sense of uneasiness and disconnection, feeling that the high schools are less person-oriented and thus deny them the opportunity to build attachments and find support with teachers as they had in the primary grades (Cotterell, 1996).

Larson (1980) reported that, in the context of the importance of social connection for adolescents, school settings and peer relationships may often generate more feelings of loneliness. Teens do not just feel alienated from peers; they feel like they have failed a critical task of being socially connected. Larson's (1980) found that when loneliness occurred it was often associated with maladjustment. Larson indicated that adolescents, who reported feeling more lonely with others in school and in public settings during this time, are more likely to show depression, lower self-esteem, lower GP A, and have more problem behaviours as rated by parents and teachers.

Peer influences:

Much of the literature pertaining to the incidence of loneliness amongst adolescents has centered on the importance of understanding the developmental stages young people encounter. Inderbitzen- Pisaruk, Clark and Solano (1992) believed that adolescents are particularly vulnerable to loneliness due to the increased importance of friendship during the developmental stage.

Loneliness is powerfully experienced in adolescence as a result of an increased need for intimacy and self-disclosure, which may only be satisfied by close relationships with same and opposite-sex peers (Brennan, 1982). According to Bell (1981) the importance of friends and peer group involvement increases with age and peaks during the tenth grade.

In a concurrent study carried out by Marcoen and Goossen (1987) reporting on peer loneliness, the authors indicated that a developmental trend toward decreased peer related loneliness occurred at an earlier age for girls than it did for boys which may suggest that girls are less lonely as they age. Some researchers have suggested that girls are less lonely than their counterparts because they remain far more social through the school years. Rafaelli (1989) found that the increased social time of girls relative to boys could be explained by the increased amount of time girls spend talking with friends. The social aspect of their development can be interpreted as a support that is interpersonally focused and may help to defer loneliness.

During early adolescence social rejection, domination, and teasing promote loneliness by encouraging sensitive individuals to see themselves as unacceptable and lacking social worth and standing, resulting in an enduring sense of social isolation.(Guttmann& Parker, 1986; Parkhurst & Asher, 1992; Rubin & Mills, 1991). Moore and Schultz (1983) stressed that those adolescents who were lonely usually remained lonely and seldom initiated interactions with others. Efforts to investigate the quality of friendship and loneliness are pronounced in friendships that lack supportive or affirming resources. Parker and Asher (1993) findings supported the premise that friendships differ in quality and that those lacking in key support, or having high levels of conflict, are less likely to remain intact and more likely to foster feelings of loneliness. Consistent with these premises, Ladd, Kochenderfer and Coleman (1996) illustrated that classmates demonstrated direct positive behaviour toward "liked" children, but treated "disliked" peers more punitively. These authors speculated that this experience thwarts basic needs that children have to belong and may give rise to affective states such as feelings of alienation and loneliness.

Families:

Families play an integral role in adolescent loneliness. Findings yielded by Rotenberg's study (1995) designed to examine how parenting styles affect their children, suggested that adolescents who reported that their parents were warm and involved in their lives were less likely to report being lonely. Interestingly, mothers' loneliness was positively associated with their adolescents' loneliness. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that mothers hand down their loneliness to their adolescent by tending not to promote positive peer relationships. In contrast, Belsky (1981) suggested that parents may be less inclined to assume responsibility for their adolescents than they did when they were children, and speculated that adolescents affect their parents' behaviour, and that they engage in reciprocal patterns of interaction. Goossen and Marcoen (1987) concluded that, from grade five until the end of high school, adolescents experience increased loneliness in relations with parents, accompanied by a clear decline in peer-related loneliness from early adolescence onwards. The latter may be explained in terms of developmental and identity exploration, as adolescents begin the process of detaching from parents and searching for more meaningful peer relationships.

Gender implications:

According to Koenig and Abrams' (1999), there is a gender difference in loneliness; it emerges during the period of adolescence. In their meta-analysis focusing on childhood and adolescent gender differences related to loneliness, with use of the VCLA Loneliness Scale, results indicated that, despite some inconsistent findings, the overall pattern suggested that a gender difference in loneliness emerged during adolescence with boys reporting more loneliness than girls. Results of Ladd et al. 1996 study carried out on the gender-dependent correlates of loneliness supported the above statement suggesting that at higher levels of friendship, conflict was associated with increased loneliness in boys.

However, some researchers have argued that, in order to ascertain if gender differences exist, research needs to encompass variables that measure different behavioral tendencies of the lonely adolescent. Crick and Ladd (1993), in earlier studies carried out targeting depressed adolescents, found that gender differences are significant and results will differ when researchers take into account aspects of behavior associated with adolescent loneliness. Interestingly, they explained that, when behaviour was accounted for, girls who received poor treatment from peers resulting in low peer acceptance demonstrated increased levels of loneliness.

METHODOLOGY

Rationale of the study:

Adolescence is a stage of life when an individual faces many conflicts and has to undergo many changes in the physical, emotional and social domain. Self-regulation is a big problem for adolescents and a large part of it includes regulation of emotions. Need to form bonds with others including the need-to love and be loved; to appreciate and be appreciated is dominant in this stage. Criticism and rejection are unbearable and when this need is not satisfied, the adolescent starts to feel lonely. The school environment is also a very important factor in enabling the student in becoming better adjusted and self-regulated. Those who study in a residential environment far away from their homes have certain different experiences and face different challenges as compared to the students living with their parents-in their own hometown. The present study thus focuses on the effect of type of schooling (living in a hostel and living at home) on the adjustment, emotional control and perceived loneliness among adolescents. The study would also try to explore the gender differences in affecting the aforementioned dependent variables.

Problem: To study the effect of type of schooling and gender on adjustment, emotional control and perceived loneliness among adolescents.

Objectives:

1. To study the effect of type of schooling on the adjustment of adolescents.
2. To study the effect of type of schooling on the emotional control of adolescents.
3. To study the effect of type of schooling on the perceived loneliness of adolescents.
4. To study the effect of gender on the adjustment of adolescents.
5. To study the effect of gender on the emotional control of adolescents.
6. To study the effect of gender on the perceived loneliness of adolescents.
7. To study the interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on adjustment of adolescents.
8. To study the interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on emotional control of adolescents.
9. To study the interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on perceived loneliness of adolescents.

Hypotheses:

1. There will be significant difference between adjustment of hostellers and day-scholars.
2. There will be significant difference between emotional control of hostellers and day-scholars.
3. There will be significant difference between perceived loneliness of hostellers and day-scholars.
4. There will be significant difference between adjustment of male and female adolescents.
5. There will be significant difference between emotional control of male and female adolescents.
6. There will be significant difference between perceived loneliness of male and female adolescents.
7. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on adjustment would be significant.
8. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on emotional control would be significant.
9. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on perceived loneliness would be significant.

Subjects:

Total 120 adolescents (60 boys and 60 girls) of age group 14-17 years were randomly selected out of which residential boys were taken from the students residing in Chaudhry Charan Singh boys hostel, Shikarpur, Uttar Pradesh and girls were taken from Kaka Girls P.G College, Sikandrabad and day-scholar girls and boys both were taken from the students studying in Saraswati Vidya Mandir, Sikandrabad, Uttar Pradesh.

Research Design: 2 (type of schooling: day scholar and hosteller) \times 2 (Gender: female and male) Factorial design was utilized in studying the effect of gender and type of schooling (hostellers and day-scholars) on adjustment, emotional control and perceived loneliness.

Variables:

Independent variables:

Type of schooling (hostellers and day-scholars)

Gender

Dependent variables:

Adjustment

Emotional control

Perceived loneliness

Tools:

Adjustment inventory for college students (AICS): For assessing the adjustment, a self-report questionnaire, Adjustment Inventory for College Students (AICS), designed by Prof. R.P. Sinha (Patna) was used. This inventory has 5 areas of adjustment (Home, Health, Social, Emotional, and Educational). The inventory has been prepared in Hindi as well as English and it has 102 items (Home 16, Health 15, Social 19, Emotional 31, and Educational 21). The split-half and test-retest reliability of the inventory are found to be .94 and .93 respectively. The validity of this inventory is also well established.

Emotional Control Scale (ECQ): The ECQ was developed by Roger & Najarian, 1989. It measures people's ability to control emotion in trying circumstances, and consists of scales for measuring "Aggression Control", "Rehearsal", "Benign Control", and "Emotional Inhibition". Participants rate statements true or false of themselves on each of the 14-item scales. Example items and alphas from each scale are as follows: Rehearsal ($\alpha=0.80$; "I find it hard to get thoughts about things that upset me out of my mind."); Emotional inhibition ($\alpha=0.77$; "When something upsets me, I prefer to talk to someone about it rather than bottle it up"), Benign control ($\alpha=0.63$; "I often say things without thinking whether I might upset others"), and Aggression control ($\alpha=0.72$; "If someone pushed me, I would push back.>").

UCLA Loneliness scale (Russell, D, Peplau, L. A & Ferguson, M. L. (1978): It is a 20-item scale designed to measure one's subjective feelings of loneliness as well as feelings of social isolation. Participants rate each item as either O ("I often feel this way"), S ("I sometimes feel this way"), R ("I rarely feel this way"), N ("I never feel this way").

Statistical Analysis:

F test (two way ANOVA) and descriptive statistics were utilized in studying the effect of gender and type of schooling (hostellers and day-scholar) on the dependent variables.

Procedure:

Total 120 adolescents (60 boys and 60 girls) of age group 14-17 years were randomly selected out of which residential boys were taken from the students residing in Chaudhry Charan Singh boys hostel, Shikarpur, Uttar Pradesh and girls were taken from Kaka Girls P.G College, Sikandrabad and day-scholar girls and boys both were taken from the students studying in Saraswati VidyaMandir, Sikandrabad. Prior consent was taken from participants and all questionnaires were administered to them. Scoring was done with the help of the respective manuals of the tests. Data were entered, calculated and interpreted with the help of SPSS software (version 16).

RESULT**Table 1:** Showing Mean and SD of day scholars and hostellers in terms of Dependent Variables.

Dependent variables	Mean		Standard Deviation	
	M ₁ (day scholars)	M ₂ (hostellers)	SD ₁ (day scholars)	SD ₂ (hostellers)
Total Adjustment	50.30	48.23	13.33	15.35
Home Adjustment	7.23	6.65	2.82	2.90
Health Adjustment	6.28	7.36	2.17	3.27
Social Adjustment	9.15	7.51	2.19	2.54
Emotional Adjustment	15.21	16.11	4.36	5.33
Educational Adjustment	9.55	8.90	3.52	3.97
Emotional Control	30.03	30.23	3.78	4.67
Perceived Loneliness	48.41	50.73	6.25	6.46

Table 1: Shows the mean & SD of day scholars and hostellers in terms of total adjustment. The mean and S.D. for total adjustment are 50.30 (13.33) & 48.23(15.35), for home adjustment are 7.23(2.82) & 6.65(2.98), for health adjustment are 6.28 (2.17) & 7.36 (3.27), for social adjustment are: 9.15 (2.19) & 7.51 (2.54), for emotional adjustment are: 15.21(4.36) & 16.11(5.33), for education adjustment are: 9.55(3.52) & 8.90(3.97) for emotional control are: 30.03(3.78) & 30.23(4.67), for perceived loneliness are: 48.41(6.25) & 50.75(6.46).

Table 2: Showing Mean and SD of males and females in terms of dependent variables

Group	Mean		Standard Deviation	
	M ₁ (male)	M ₂ (female)	SD ₁	SD ₂
Total Adjustment	50.51	48.01	14.48	14.22
Home Adjustment	6.53	7.35	2.80	2.89
Health Adjustment	7.03	6.61	2.46	3.14
Social Adjustment	7.90	8.76	2.58	2.36
Emotional Adjustment	15.56	15.76	5.01	4.76
Educational Adjustment	9.41	9.03	3.72	3.80
Emotional Control	30.48	29.78	4.77	3.62
Perceived Loneliness	49.66	49.48	6.43	6.49

Table 2: Shows the mean & SD of female and male in terms of total adjustment 50.51 (14.48) & 48.01(14.22), home adjustment 6.53(2.80) & 7.35(2.89), health adjustment 7.03 (2.46) & 6.61 (3.14), social adjustment 7.90 (2.58) & 8.76 (2.36), emotional adjustment 15.56 (5.01) & 15.76 (4.76), education adjustment 9.41 (3.72) & 9.03 (3.80), emotional control 30.48 (4.77) & 29.78 (3.62), perceived loneliness 49.66 (6.43) & 49.48(6.49).

Table 3: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Total Adjustment

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	128.13	1	128.13	.61 ^{NS}	.43
Gender	187.50	1	187.50	.90 ^{NS}	.34
Type of schooling × Gender	116.03	1	116.03	.55 ^{NS}	.45
Error	24085.80	116	207.63		

NS = Not significant

Table 3: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on total adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be .61 which is statistically not significant. The F value for gender was found to be .90 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on total adjustment was also found to be not significant as $f = .55$.

Table 4: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Home adjustment.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	10.20	1	10.20	1.29 ^{NS}	.25
Gender	20.00	1	20.00	2.54 ^{NS}	.11
Type of schooling * Gender	35.20	1	35.20	4.47*	.03
Error	913.16	116	7.87		

*= $p < .05$, NS= not significant

Table 4: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on home adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be 1.29 which is statistically not significant. The F value for gender was found to be 2.54 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on home adjustment was found to be significant as $f = 4.47$.

Table 5: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Health adjustment.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	35.20	1	35.20	4.51*	.03
Gender	5.20	1	5.20	.66 ^{NS}	.41
Type of schooling × Gender	1.40	1	1.40	.18 ^{NS}	.67
Error	905.50	116	7.80		

*= $p < .05$, NS= not significant

Table 5: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on health adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be 4.51 which is statistically significant. The F value for gender was found to

be .66 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on health adjustment was also found to be not significant as $f = .18$.

Table 6: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Social adjustment.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	80.03	1	80.03	15.32**	.00
Gender	22.53	1	22.53	4.31*	.04
Type of schooling× Gender	36.30	1	36.30	6.95*	.01
Error	605.80	116	5.22		

*= $p < .05$, **= $p < .01$

Table 6: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on social adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be 15.32 which is statistically significant. The F value for gender was found to be 4.31 which is statistically significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on social adjustment was also found to be significant as $f = 6.95$.

Table 7: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Emotional adjustment.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	24.30	1	24.30	1.01 ^{NS}	.31
Gender	1.20	1	1.20	.05 ^{NS}	.82
Type of schooling× Gender	14.70	1	14.70	.61 ^{NS}	.43
Error	2786.46	116	24.02		

NS= not significant

Table 7: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on emotional adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be 1.01 which is statistically not significant. The F value for gender was found to be .05 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on emotional adjustment was also found to be not significant as $f = .61$.

Table 8

2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Educational adjustment.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	12.67	1	12.67	.88 ^{NS}	.34
Gender	4.40	1	4.40	.30 ^{NS}	.58
Type of schooling * Gender	.67	1	.67	.04 ^{NS}	.82
Error	1663.16	116	14.33		

NS= not significant

Table 8: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on education adjustment separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be .88 which is statistically not significant .The F value for gender was found to be .30 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on educational adjustment was also found to be not significant as $f = .04$.

Table 9: 2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Emotional control.

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	1.20	1	1.20	.06 ^{NS}	.79
Gender	14.70	1	14.70	.80 ^{NS}	.37
Type of schooling× Gender	7.50	1	7.50	.41 ^{NS}	.52
Error	2108.46	116	18.17		

NS= not significant

Table 9:shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on emotional control separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be .06 which is statistically not significant .The F value for gender was found to be .80 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on total emotional control was also found to be not significant as $f = .41$.

Table 10

2x2 ANOVA showing effect of Type of schooling and Gender on Perceived loneliness .

Source	S.S	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Type of schooling	161.00	1	161.00	4.13*	.04
Gender	1.00	1	1.00	.02 ^{NS}	.87
Type of schooling * Gender	261.07	1	261.07	6.71*	.01
Error	4512.23	116	38.89		

*= $p < .05$, NS= not significant

Table 10: shows the individual effect of type of schooling and gender on perceived loneliness separately. The F value for type of schooling was found to be 4.13 which is statistically significant .The F value for gender was found to be .02 which is statistically not significant. The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on perceived loneliness was also found to be significant as $f = 6.71$.

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to study the effect of type of schooling and gender on adjustment, emotional control and perceived loneliness among adolescents.

No significant differences were found between day scholars and hostellers in terms of total adjustment which implies that type of schooling didn't have an effect on total adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Kakkar, 1967).

According to the knowledge of investigator, very few studies have been reported exploring the effect of type of schooling on home adjustment. The present study however attempted to examine the effect of type of schooling on home adjustment and found that home adjustment of day scholars and hostellers does not differ significantly. The probable reason behind this may be that the sample included in this study comprised of adolescents. Also, if we carefully observe the means of both groups on home adjustment, we find that both groups have not very good home adjustment (which might be attributed to adolescence related conflicts). This means due to the adjustment problems encountered in adolescence, both groups obtained similar means showing no significant differences.

In the present study, type of schooling significantly affected health adjustment as day-scholars have better health adjustment in comparison to the hostellers. This finding supports previous research (Perveen & Kazmi, 2011).

In the present study, type of schooling significantly affected social adjustment of adolescents. Hostellers were found to be better socially adjusted in comparison to the day scholars. Present findings contradict previous findings for e.g. Joshi and Gupta (2010) found no sig differences between the social adjustment level of hostellers and boarders. The probable reason behind the present finding may be the fact that students residing in hostels have many opportunities to develop social adjustment skills in comparison to the day scholars. In hostels, adolescents must develop how to interact with other hostellers and adapt to the changing situations accordingly. The probable reason behind the fact that present findings contradict Joshi & Gupta (2010) may be the presence of some moderating variable like personality of participants or their early learning environments.

No significant differences were found between day scholars and hostellers in terms of emotional adjustment which implies that type of schooling didn't have an effect on emotional adjustment of adolescents. Present findings support previous findings (Sharma, 2007).

No significant differences were found between day scholars and hostellers in terms of educational adjustment which implies that type of schooling didn't have an effect on educational adjustment of adolescents. The present findings contradict a previous study conducted by Joshi & Gupta (2010) who found hostellers to be better educationally adjusted than day-scholars. The probable reason behind this finding may be the fact that both institutes (both residential and non-residential) taken in present study had similar educational status; both of them equally competent in imparting good education. May be due to the aforesaid reason, the investigator didn't find any significant difference in the educational adjustment among day-scholars and hostellers.

No significant differences were found between day scholars and hostellers in terms of emotional control which implies that type of schooling didn't have an effect on emotional control of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Vijayalakshmi, Bhartia & Muthuvel, 2008)

In the present study, type of schooling significantly affected perceived loneliness of adolescents. Hostellers were found to experience more perceived loneliness in comparison to the day scholars. Present findings support previous findings (Shah et al., 2009; Wright, 1967).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of total adjustment which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on total adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Goyat, 2012; Sharma 2012).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of home adjustment which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on home adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Pathak, 1970).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of health adjustment which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on health adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Raju, Rani & Ramesh, 2009).

In the present study, gender significantly affected social adjustment of adolescents. Females were found to be better socially adjusted in comparison to males. Present findings are consistent with previous findings (Dhillon & D' Souza 1992)

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of emotional adjustment which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on emotional adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Sharma, 2012; Jdaitawi, Ishak & Mustafa, 2011).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of educational adjustment which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on educational adjustment of adolescents. The present findings support previous research (Jdaitawi, Ishak & Mustafa, 2011).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of emotional control which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on emotional control of adolescents. The present findings are consistent with previous research (Pant and Prakash, 2004).

No significant differences were found between males and females in terms of perceived loneliness which implies that gender of participants didn't have an effect on perceived loneliness of adolescents. The present findings are consistent with previous research (Archibald, Bartholomew, & Marx, 1995; Berg & Peplau, 1982),

When interaction effects were seen between type of schooling and gender on adjustment (total and all five dimensions), no significant interaction effect was found for total, home, emotional and educational adjustment. Similar results have been reported in previous research examining adjustment problems of adolescents that the interaction effect of type of schooling and gender were insignificant (Kakkar, 1967).

The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on health adjustment was found to be significant. This finding may be explained as both: type of schooling and gender individually are affecting health adjustment among adolescents; thus their interaction has also become significant.

The interaction effect of type of schooling and gender on social adjustment was found to be significant contradicting Joshi & Gupta (2010) which found the interaction between aforementioned variables to be non-significant. This contradiction can be explained on the ground that as type of schooling had a highly significant effect on social adjustment and gender also seemed to affect it in present study, the interaction effect of type of schooling and gender has also been significant.

Very few researchers have focused on the interaction of type of schooling and gender on emotional control and perceived loneliness up to the knowledge of investigator. However, in the present study, no significant interaction effects have been observed between type of schooling and gender on emotional control. Significant interaction of

type of schooling and gender was seen on perceived loneliness. This may be explained as type of schooling has emerged as a highly significant factor in affecting perceived loneliness in spite of the fact that gender is not individually affecting perceived loneliness. So, simply being male or female does not appear to affect perceived loneliness in present study but being in a hostel and being a male or female is affecting it more.

Limitations and suggestions:

Limitations:

Although the study was done with sincerity, still it has some limitations which should be taken into account. First of all, the sample was relatively small. Secondly, the study took place at two different schools only which may also affect the generalize ability to other institutions. Consequently, the results will only be applicable to similar institutions in similar settings. Third, the study does not take into account factors like faculty characteristics, teaching styles, overall which could have an effect on student's type of schooling. Fourth, the study took place at one point in time which again limits the ability to generalize the findings to other time periods and replicate the findings. Fifth, the small sample size. Besides these limitations, some other practical problems were also created while data collection. Such problems included lack of cooperation by all students approached for administration of the study, half-filled questionnaires, etc. The questionnaires which were half completed had to be excluded in the final data. There may be a possibility of the presence of moderating variables which might have affected present findings. Better parameters can be set and modifications can be made for overcoming these limitations keeping these problems in mind in the future works.

Suggestions

Since this study has certain weak points, more controlled studies should be conducted. Such study may be replicated on a regional or a national basis. The sample should be larger and more diverse to improve the generalize ability of the findings. Higher statistics should be used and there should be a better controlled study. There should be consideration of moderating variables and on controlling them. Further research should be conducted on other aspects important for day scholars and hostellers

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Adjustment among the practicing love marriage and arrange marriage people

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INTRODUCTION:

Adjustment regulating or adapting with and other animals maintain equilibrium among their various needs or between their needs different situation. Adjustment in psychology the behavior process by which humans and the obstacles of their environments. A sequence of adjustment beings when a need is felt and when it is satisfied.

Adjustment in different levels of environment

1. Social Environment

- I. Home
- II. School
- III. Job

2. Personal Environment:

- I. **Friendship:** Relationship is very requirement for all human being for a human society is concerned. Among all relationship friendship is very important as well as research for everyone. This relation make people vary also requires maintaining harmony of the society. Friendship is made relation that one is not alone but having complained to him or her. In social life, which is heeded?
- II. **Marriage:** Marriage level has three types, is, love marriage, arrange marriage and forced marriage. Let's know them in detail.
 - i. **Love marriage:** A **love marriage** is a union of two individuals based upon mutual love, affection, commitment and attraction. While the term has little discrete meaning in the western world. Where most marriages are considered to be 'based in love,' the term has meaning elsewhere to indicate a concept of marriage which differs from the norms of arranged marriage and forced marriage.
 - ii. **Arranged marriage:** An **Arranged marriage** is one in which by someone other than the couple getting married makes the selection of the persons to be wed, curtailing or avoiding the process of courtship. Such marriages had deep roots in royal and aristocratic families around the world, including Europe. Today arrange marriage largely practiced in south Asia, Africa, the Middle East and East Asia

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- iii. to some extent. Arranged marriages are usually seen in Indian, traditional European and African cultures, especially among royalty, and are usually decided by the parents or an older family member. The match could be selected by parents, a matchmaking agent, matrimonial site, or a trusted third party. In many communities, priests or religious leaders as well as relative or family friends play a major role in matchmaking?
- iv. **Forced marriage:** forced marriage is a used to describe a marriage in which one or both of the parties are married without his or her consent or against his or her will. A forced marriage differs from an arranged marriage, in which both parties consent to the assistance of their parents or a third party (such as a matchmaker) in indentifying a spouse, although the difference between the two may be indistinct. The practice of forced marriage was quite common amongst the upper classes in Europe until the 20th country, and is still practiced in parts of south Asia, East Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. Forced marriages are generally made because of family pride, the wishes of the parents, or social obligation.

Methodology :

Problem statement: A comparative study of level of adjustment among the practicing Love Marriage and Arrange Marriage people.

Type of the study: The researcher has employed a survey

Objectives:

1. To know the level of adjustment among the people who have pretested love marriage & arrange marriage.
2. To determination the gender play a role in the level of adjustment among the people prospecting love marriage & arrange marriage.

Hypothesis:

1. There will be no significant difference in the level of adjustment between the people who have practiced love marriage and arrange marriage.
2. There will be no significant difference in the level of adjustment between the people who have practiced love marriage and arrange marriage.

Variable:

- i. **Independents variable**
- Love marriage and Arrange marriage people
 - Gender

ii. Dependent variable

- Adjustment

Sample: The sample for the study compression of 120 married male and female practicing custom of the love marriage and arrange marriage residing in Anand district.

Tools: Adjustment questioner by Prof Promod kumar and Rohit Kanchan

Data Analysis: There are two independents variable each varied levels in the present study. There for it is a 2*2 fractional design. The statically analysis for the design will be t-test.

RESULT & INTERPRETATION:

Table: 1

Sex	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	Level SN
Male	30	52.8	0.85	58	63.39	0.01
Female	30	106.68				

The mean for males and female practicing Arrange Marriage male is 52.84 and female is 106.68. The t-value both the above is 63.39 thanes, it is significant at 0.01 level. Therefore the first hypotheses is rejected.

Table: 2

Sex	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	Level SN
Male	30	235.5	1.35	58	48.59	0.01
Female	30	169.9				

The mean for male practicing love marriage is 235.5 and female the mean for female practicing love marriage is 169.9 which are signficant at 0.01 levels. There for the second hypotheses is reject

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